

Remarks

1. Summary of Office Action

In the final Office Action mailed on April 4, 2005, the Examiner rejected claims 1-4, 8-15, 18-21, 25-27, 38-40, and 43 under 35 U.S.C. 103(a) as being obvious over a combination of disclosure in Applicant's specification, Kumar (U.S. Patent No. 6,473,396), and Kadansky (U.S. Patent No. 6,507,562), and claims 5-7 and 22-24 as being obvious over a combination of disclosure in Applicant's specification, Kumar, Kadansky, and Lau (U.S. Patent No. 5,774,465).

2. Amendments

Applicant has amended a portion of the specification beginning on page 5 to update the status of the related applications, as requested by the Examiner.

Further, Applicant has canceled claims 5-9, 11-15, 22-26, 38-40, and 43. Applicant has also amended claims 1, 10, and 18 to recite the invention more particularly, as fully supported by Applicant's specification.

Pending in this application are claims 1-4, 10, and 18-21 and 27, of which claims 1 and 18 are independent and the remainder are dependent.

3. Response to Information Disclosure Statement Requirement

Applicant submits herein copies of the references cited in the form PTO-1449 filed on December 27, 2004 to comply with the requirements of 37 C.F.R. 1.98(a)(2). Applicant requests the Examiner to consider these references.

4. Response to § 103 Rejections of Claims 1-4, 8-15, 18-21, 25-27, 38-40, and 43

As noted above, the Examiner rejected claims 1-4, 8-15, 18-21, 25-27, 38-40, and 43 under 35 U.S.C. 103(a) as being obvious over a combination of cited disclosure in Applicant's specification, Kumar, and Kadansky.

Applicant has canceled claims 8, 9, 11-15, 25, 26, 38-40, and 43, thus rendering the rejections of these claims moot. Further, Applicant respectfully traverses the Examiner's rejections with respect to pending claims 1-4, 10, 18-21, and 27 because the cited combination does not teach or suggest all of the elements of any of these claims, as would be required to establish a *prima facie* case of obviousness. M.P.E.P. § 2143.

Independent claim 1, as amended above, is directed to a proxy server for providing fault tolerance in a network telephony system. The proxy server includes (i) a receiver operable to receive a first signaling message from a first network entity via a network, *where the first signaling message is transmitted from the first network entity to initiate a call with a second network entity*, (ii) a transmitter operable to transmit a second signaling message to the second network entity via the network *to initiate the call with the second network entity*, and (iii) an address resolver operable to determine the second network entity to which the second signaling message is to be transmitted.

The proxy server further includes (iv) an assembler operable *to modify the first signaling message to obtain the second signaling message by adding at least a path attribute including at least one network address corresponding to a backup proxy server such that the second signaling message used to initiate the call with the second network entity includes the at least one network address corresponding to the backup proxy server*.

Similarly, independent claim 18 is directed to a method for providing fault tolerance at a proxy server, including, among others, the function of “*modifying the first signaling message to obtain the second signaling message by inserting at least a path attribute including at least one network address corresponding to a backup proxy server such that the second signaling message used to initiate the call with the second network entity includes the at least one network address corresponding to the backup proxy server*”.

Applicant respectfully submits that the cited combination does not teach or suggest at least the claimed function of: modifying at a proxy server a first signaling message received from a first network entity, where the first signaling message is transmitted from the first network entity to initiate a call with a second network entity, to obtain a second signaling message, where the second signaling message is transmitted to the second network entity to initiate the call with the second network entity, by adding at least a path attribute including at least one network address corresponding to a backup proxy server such that the second signaling message used to initiate the call with the second network entity includes the at least one network address corresponding to the backup proxy server.

At best, the disclosure in Applicant’s specification cited by the Examiner teaches a network telephony system that includes first and second network entities that communicate signaling messages via a proxy server to initiate a call (e.g., a SIP-based call). Applicant’s specification, however, does not admit that it was ever known to modify a signaling message at a proxy server during a call initiation process between first and second network entities by adding a path attribute including at least one network address corresponding to a backup proxy server.

Kumar teaches a module redundant system that may include a number of hardware modules that may be located in a single hardware chassis and connected by a backplane. To the

extent relevant, Kumar discloses that the system includes an active server module and a number of standby server modules. As disclosed by Kumar and noted by the Examiner, one of the standby server modules may become a new active server module in the event that the currently active server module fails. For example, Kumar teaches that the active server module may process packets from client modules and may also route the packets to one of the standby server modules for storage in a buffer. In the event the standby server module determines that the active server module is not functional, the standby server module activates to become a new active server module. (*See* Kumar, col. 4, line 61 to col. 5, line 11.)

In this regard, Kumar further discloses that once the standby server module becomes the new active server module, the new active server module may determine the client modules connected to the previously active server module. The new active server module may then send a broadcast to those client modules to announce that a changeover occurred. The client modules can then modify their address lookup tables accordingly. (*See* Kumar, col. 5, lines 55-67.)

However, Applicant respectfully submits that neither the disclosure cited by the Examiner from Applicant's specification nor Kumar, separately or in combination, teaches or suggests the presently claimed invention that is recited in each of independent claims 1 and 18 amended above.

Further, Applicant respectfully submits that Kadansky fails to make up for these deficiencies. Kadansky teaches a system in which a plurality of receiver stations choose (or affiliate with) a repair head station from among the closely located receiver stations. The repair head station functions to "repair", or retransmit, any missing messages transmitted from a sender station to the member stations under the repair head station.

As recognized by the Examiner, at col. 27, lines 13-34, Kadansky teaches a scenario in which one repair head resigns in favor of another repair head. To ensure smooth and quick re-affiliations of its members, the resigning repair head can include details of any backup repair head (e.g., a network address) in the “Hello” message sent to its members. Some of the members may choose to re-affiliate with the backup repair head, while others can choose to re-affiliate with a different repair head.

Applicant, however, respectfully submits that this mere teaching of providing a network address of a backup repair head in a communication message *does not disclose the claimed function of*: modifying at a proxy server a first signaling message received from a first network entity, where the first signaling message is transmitted from the first network entity to initiate a call with a second network entity, to obtain a second signaling message, where the second signaling message is transmitted to the second network entity to initiate the call with the second network entity, by adding at least a path attribute including at least one network address corresponding to a backup proxy server such that the second signaling message used to initiate the call with the second network entity includes the at least one network address corresponding to the backup proxy server.

To illustrate, Applicant’s claimed invention may be employed during a call initiation process between two network entities (e.g. two network phones) in an IP telephony system operating according to SIP signaling protocol. For example, to initiate a call between a first network entity and a second network entity, a first network entity may send a first INVITE request to a primary proxy server. In turn, the primary proxy server may modify the first INVITE request from the first network entity to obtain a second INVITE request by inserting a

path attribute including a network address of a backup proxy server. The primary proxy server may then transmit the second INVITE request to the second network entity.

Advantageously, with Applicant's claimed invention, once the second network entity receives the second INVITE request including the network address of the backup proxy server during the call initiation process, the second network entity may transmit subsequent signaling message(s) to the backup proxy server in case the primary proxy server fails. For example, in case the primary proxy server fails, the second network entity may transmit a response to the INVITE request (e.g., a "200 OK" response message) via the backup proxy server to establish the call with the first network entity.

Because the cited combination fails to disclose or suggest all of the elements of any of independent claims 1 and 18, Applicant respectfully submits that the cited combination fails to render these claims obvious. Therefore, Applicant submits that claims 1 and 18 are in condition for allowance. Accordingly, each of dependent claims 2-4, 10, 19-21, and 27 is also in condition for allowance.

5. Response to § 103 Rejections of Claims 5-7 and 22-24

Applicant has canceled claims 5-7 and 22-24, thus rendering the obviousness rejections of these claims moot.

6. Conclusion

Accordingly, Applicant respectfully submits that all of presently pending claims 1-4, 10, 18-21 and 27 are in condition for allowance, and Applicant respectfully requests favorable reconsideration.

Respectfully submitted,

**McDONNELL BOEHNEN
HULBERT & BERGHOFF LLP**

Date: July 5, 2005

By:



Joanna Skyles
Reg. No. 54,454

Network Working Group
Request for Comments: 1889
Category: Standards Track

Audio-Video Transport Working Group
H. Schulzrinne
GMD Fokus
S. Casner
Precept Software, Inc.
R. Frederick
Xerox Palo Alto Research Center
V. Jacobson
Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory
January 1996

RTP: A Transport Protocol for Real-Time Applications

Status of this Memo

This document specifies an Internet standards track protocol for the Internet community, and requests discussion and suggestions for improvements. Please refer to the current edition of the "Internet Official Protocol Standards" (STD 1) for the standardization state and status of this protocol. Distribution of this memo is unlimited.

Abstract

This memorandum describes RTP, the real-time transport protocol. RTP provides end-to-end network transport functions suitable for applications transmitting real-time data, such as audio, video or simulation data, over multicast or unicast network services. RTP does not address resource reservation and does not guarantee quality-of-service for real-time services. The data transport is augmented by a control protocol (RTCP) to allow monitoring of the data delivery in a manner scalable to large multicast networks, and to provide minimal control and identification functionality. RTP and RTCP are designed to be independent of the underlying transport and network layers. The protocol supports the use of RTP-level translators and mixers.

Table of Contents

1.	Introduction	3
2.	RTP Use Scenarios	5
2.1	Simple Multicast Audio Conference	5
2.2	Audio and Video Conference	6
2.3	Mixers and Translators	6
3.	Definitions	7
4.	Byte Order, Alignment, and Time Format	9
5.	RTP Data Transfer Protocol	10
5.1	RTP Fixed Header Fields	10
5.2	Multiplexing RTP Sessions	13

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 1]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

5.3	Profile-Specific Modifications to the RTP Header.....	14
5.3.1	RTP Header Extension	14
6.	RTP Control Protocol -- RTCP	15
6.1	RTCP Packet Format	17
6.2	RTCP Transmission Interval	19

6.2.1	Maintaining the number of session members	21
6.2.2	Allocation of source description bandwidth	21
6.3	Sender and Receiver Reports	22
6.3.1	SR: Sender report RTCP packet	23
6.3.2	RR: Receiver report RTCP packet	28
6.3.3	Extending the sender and receiver reports	29
6.3.4	Analyzing sender and receiver reports	29
6.4	SDES: Source description RTCP packet	31
6.4.1	CNAME: Canonical end-point identifier SDES item	32
6.4.2	NAME: User name SDES item	34
6.4.3	EMAIL: Electronic mail address SDES item	34
6.4.4	PHONE: Phone number SDES item	34
6.4.5	LOC: Geographic user location SDES item	35
6.4.6	TOOL: Application or tool name SDES item	35
6.4.7	NOTE: Notice/status SDES item	35
6.4.8	PRIV: Private extensions SDES item	36
6.5	BYE: Goodbye RTCP packet	37
6.6	APP: Application-defined RTCP packet	38
7.	RTP Translators and Mixers	39
7.1	General Description	39
7.2	RTCP Processing in Translators	41
7.3	RTCP Processing in Mixers	43
7.4	Cascaded Mixers	44
8.	SSRC Identifier Allocation and Use	44
8.1	Probability of Collision	44
8.2	Collision Resolution and Loop Detection	45
9.	Security	49
9.1	Confidentiality	49
9.2	Authentication and Message Integrity	50
10.	RTP over Network and Transport Protocols	51
11.	Summary of Protocol Constants	51
11.1	RTCP packet types	52
11.2	SDES types	52
12.	RTP Profiles and Payload Format Specifications	53
A.	Algorithms	56
A.1	RTP Data Header Validity Checks	59
A.2	RTCP Header Validity Checks	63
A.3	Determining the Number of RTP Packets Expected and Lost	63
A.4	Generating SDES RTCP Packets	64
A.5	Parsing RTCP SDES Packets	65
A.6	Generating a Random 32-bit Identifier	66
A.7	Computing the RTCP Transmission Interval	68

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 2]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

A.8	Estimating the Interarrival Jitter	71
B.	Security Considerations	72
C.	Addresses of Authors	72
D.	Bibliography	73

1. Introduction

This memorandum specifies the real-time transport protocol (RTP), which provides end-to-end delivery services for data with real-time characteristics, such as interactive audio and video. Those services include payload type identification, sequence numbering, timestamping and delivery monitoring. Applications typically run RTP on top of UDP to make use of its multiplexing and checksum services; both protocols contribute parts of the transport protocol functionality. However, RTP may be used with other suitable underlying network or transport protocols (see Section 10). RTP supports data transfer to multiple

destinations using multicast distribution if provided by the underlying network.

Note that RTP itself does not provide any mechanism to ensure timely delivery or provide other quality-of-service guarantees, but relies on lower-layer services to do so. It does not guarantee delivery or prevent out-of-order delivery, nor does it assume that the underlying network is reliable and delivers packets in sequence. The sequence numbers included in RTP allow the receiver to reconstruct the sender's packet sequence, but sequence numbers might also be used to determine the proper location of a packet, for example in video decoding, without necessarily decoding packets in sequence.

While RTP is primarily designed to satisfy the needs of multi-participant multimedia conferences, it is not limited to that particular application. Storage of continuous data, interactive distributed simulation, active badge, and control and measurement applications may also find RTP applicable.

This document defines RTP, consisting of two closely-linked parts:

- o the real-time transport protocol (RTP), to carry data that has real-time properties.
- o the RTP control protocol (RTCP), to monitor the quality of service and to convey information about the participants in an on-going session. The latter aspect of RTCP may be sufficient for "loosely controlled" sessions, i.e., where there is no explicit membership control and set-up, but it is not necessarily intended to support all of an application's control communication requirements. This functionality may be fully or partially subsumed by a separate session control protocol,

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 3]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

which is beyond the scope of this document.

RTP represents a new style of protocol following the principles of application level framing and integrated layer processing proposed by Clark and Tennenhouse [1]. That is, RTP is intended to be malleable to provide the information required by a particular application and will often be integrated into the application processing rather than being implemented as a separate layer. RTP is a protocol framework that is deliberately not complete. This document specifies those functions expected to be common across all the applications for which RTP would be appropriate. Unlike conventional protocols in which additional functions might be accommodated by making the protocol more general or by adding an option mechanism that would require parsing, RTP is intended to be tailored through modifications and/or additions to the headers as needed. Examples are given in Sections 5.3 and 6.3.3.

Therefore, in addition to this document, a complete specification of RTP for a particular application will require one or more companion documents (see Section 12):

- o a profile specification document, which defines a set of payload type codes and their mapping to payload formats (e.g., media encodings). A profile may also define extensions or modifications to RTP that are specific to a particular class of applications. Typically an application will operate under only one profile. A profile for audio and video data may be found in

the companion RFC TBD.

o payload format specification documents, which define how a particular payload, such as an audio or video encoding, is to be carried in RTP.

A discussion of real-time services and algorithms for their implementation as well as background discussion on some of the RTP design decisions can be found in [2].

Several RTP applications, both experimental and commercial, have already been implemented from draft specifications. These applications include audio and video tools along with diagnostic tools such as traffic monitors. Users of these tools number in the thousands. However, the current Internet cannot yet support the full potential demand for real-time services. High-bandwidth services using RTP, such as video, can potentially seriously degrade the quality of service of other network services. Thus, implementors should take appropriate precautions to limit accidental bandwidth usage. Application documentation should clearly outline the limitations and possible operational impact of high-bandwidth real-

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 4]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

time services on the Internet and other network services.

2. RTP Use Scenarios

The following sections describe some aspects of the use of RTP. The examples were chosen to illustrate the basic operation of applications using RTP, not to limit what RTP may be used for. In these examples, RTP is carried on top of IP and UDP, and follows the conventions established by the profile for audio and video specified in the companion Internet-Draft draft-ietf-avt-profile

2.1 Simple Multicast Audio Conference

A working group of the IETF meets to discuss the latest protocol draft, using the IP multicast services of the Internet for voice communications. Through some allocation mechanism the working group chair obtains a multicast group address and pair of ports. One port is used for audio data, and the other is used for control (RTCP) packets. This address and port information is distributed to the intended participants. If privacy is desired, the data and control packets may be encrypted as specified in Section 9.1, in which case an encryption key must also be generated and distributed. The exact details of these allocation and distribution mechanisms are beyond the scope of RTP.

The audio conferencing application used by each conference participant sends audio data in small chunks of, say, 20 ms duration. Each chunk of audio data is preceded by an RTP header; RTP header and data are in turn contained in a UDP packet. The RTP header indicates what type of audio encoding (such as PCM, ADPCM or LPC) is contained in each packet so that senders can change the encoding during a conference, for example, to accommodate a new participant that is connected through a low-bandwidth link or react to indications of network congestion.

The Internet, like other packet networks, occasionally loses and reorders packets and delays them by variable amounts of time. To cope with these impairments, the RTP header contains timing information

and a sequence number that allow the receivers to reconstruct the timing produced by the source, so that in this example, chunks of audio are contiguously played out the speaker every 20 ms. This timing reconstruction is performed separately for each source of RTP packets in the conference. The sequence number can also be used by the receiver to estimate how many packets are being lost.

Since members of the working group join and leave during the conference, it is useful to know who is participating at any moment and how well they are receiving the audio data. For that purpose,

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 5]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

each instance of the audio application in the conference periodically multicasts a reception report plus the name of its user on the RTCP (control) port. The reception report indicates how well the current speaker is being received and may be used to control adaptive encodings. In addition to the user name, other identifying information may also be included subject to control bandwidth limits. A site sends the RTCP BYE packet (Section 6.5) when it leaves the conference.

2.2 Audio and Video Conference

If both audio and video media are used in a conference, they are transmitted as separate RTP sessions. RTCP packets are transmitted for each medium using two different UDP port pairs and/or multicast addresses. There is no direct coupling at the RTP level between the audio and video sessions, except that a user participating in both sessions should use the same distinguished (canonical) name in the RTCP packets for both so that the sessions can be associated.

One motivation for this separation is to allow some participants in the conference to receive only one medium if they choose. Further explanation is given in Section 5.2. Despite the separation, synchronized playback of a source's audio and video can be achieved using timing information carried in the RTCP packets for both sessions.

2.3 Mixers and Translators

So far, we have assumed that all sites want to receive media data in the same format. However, this may not always be appropriate. Consider the case where participants in one area are connected through a low-speed link to the majority of the conference participants who enjoy high-speed network access. Instead of forcing everyone to use a lower-bandwidth, reduced-quality audio encoding, an RTP-level relay called a mixer may be placed near the low-bandwidth area. This mixer resynchronizes incoming audio packets to reconstruct the constant 20 ms spacing generated by the sender, mixes these reconstructed audio streams into a single stream, translates the audio encoding to a lower-bandwidth one and forwards the lower-bandwidth packet stream across the low-speed link. These packets might be unicast to a single recipient or multicast on a different address to multiple recipients. The RTP header includes a means for mixers to identify the sources that contributed to a mixed packet so that correct talker indication can be provided at the receivers.

Some of the intended participants in the audio conference may be connected with high bandwidth links but might not be directly reachable via IP multicast. For example, they might be behind an

application-level firewall that will not let any IP packets pass. For these sites, mixing may not be necessary, in which case another type of RTP-level relay called a translator may be used. Two translators are installed, one on either side of the firewall, with the outside one funneling all multicast packets received through a secure connection to the translator inside the firewall. The translator inside the firewall sends them again as multicast packets to a multicast group restricted to the site's internal network.

Mixers and translators may be designed for a variety of purposes. An example is a video mixer that scales the images of individual people in separate video streams and composites them into one video stream to simulate a group scene. Other examples of translation include the connection of a group of hosts speaking only IP/UDP to a group of hosts that understand only ST-II, or the packet-by-packet encoding translation of video streams from individual sources without resynchronization or mixing. Details of the operation of mixers and translators are given in Section 7.

3. Definitions

RTP payload: The data transported by RTP in a packet, for example audio samples or compressed video data. The payload format and interpretation are beyond the scope of this document.

RTP packet: A data packet consisting of the fixed RTP header, a possibly empty list of contributing sources (see below), and the payload data. Some underlying protocols may require an encapsulation of the RTP packet to be defined. Typically one packet of the underlying protocol contains a single RTP packet, but several RTP packets may be contained if permitted by the encapsulation method (see Section 10).

RTCP packet: A control packet consisting of a fixed header part similar to that of RTP data packets, followed by structured elements that vary depending upon the RTCP packet type. The formats are defined in Section 6. Typically, multiple RTCP packets are sent together as a compound RTCP packet in a single packet of the underlying protocol; this is enabled by the length field in the fixed header of each RTCP packet.

Port: The "abstraction that transport protocols use to distinguish among multiple destinations within a given host computer. TCP/IP protocols identify ports using small positive integers." [3] The transport selectors (TSEL) used by the OSI transport layer are equivalent to ports. RTP depends upon the lower-layer protocol to provide some mechanism such as ports to multiplex the RTP and RTCP packets of a session.

Transport address: The combination of a network address and port that identifies a transport-level endpoint, for example an IP address and a UDP port. Packets are transmitted from a source transport address to a destination transport address.

RTP session: The association among a set of participants communicating with RTP. For each participant, the session is defined by a particular pair of destination transport addresses (one network address plus a port pair for RTP and RTCP). The destination transport address pair may be common for all participants, as in the case of IP multicast, or may be different for each, as in the case of individual unicast network addresses plus a common port pair. In a multimedia session, each medium is carried in a separate RTP session with its own RTCP packets. The multiple RTP sessions are distinguished by different port number pairs and/or different multicast addresses.

Synchronization source (SSRC): The source of a stream of RTP packets, identified by a 32-bit numeric SSRC identifier carried in the RTP header so as not to be dependent upon the network address. All packets from a synchronization source form part of the same timing and sequence number space, so a receiver groups packets by synchronization source for playback. Examples of synchronization sources include the sender of a stream of packets derived from a signal source such as a microphone or a camera, or an RTP mixer (see below). A synchronization source may change its data format, e.g., audio encoding, over time. The SSRC identifier is a randomly chosen value meant to be globally unique within a particular RTP session (see Section 8). A participant need not use the same SSRC identifier for all the RTP sessions in a multimedia session; the binding of the SSRC identifiers is provided through RTCP (see Section 6.4.1). If a participant generates multiple streams in one RTP session, for example from separate video cameras, each must be identified as a different SSRC.

Contributing source (CSRC): A source of a stream of RTP packets that has contributed to the combined stream produced by an RTP mixer (see below). The mixer inserts a list of the SSRC identifiers of the sources that contributed to the generation of a particular packet into the RTP header of that packet. This list is called the CSRC list. An example application is audio conferencing where a mixer indicates all the talkers whose speech was combined to produce the outgoing packet, allowing the receiver to indicate the current talker, even though all the audio packets contain the same SSRC identifier (that of the mixer).

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 8]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

End system: An application that generates the content to be sent in RTP packets and/or consumes the content of received RTP packets. An end system can act as one or more synchronization sources in a particular RTP session, but typically only one.

Mixer: An intermediate system that receives RTP packets from one or more sources, possibly changes the data format, combines the packets in some manner and then forwards a new RTP packet. Since the timing among multiple input sources will not generally be synchronized, the mixer will make timing adjustments among the streams and generate its own timing for the combined stream. Thus, all data packets originating from a mixer will be identified as having the mixer as their synchronization source.

Translator: An intermediate system that forwards RTP packets with

their synchronization source identifier intact. Examples of translators include devices that convert encodings without mixing, replicators from multicast to unicast, and application-level filters in firewalls.

Monitor: An application that receives RTCP packets sent by participants in an RTP session, in particular the reception reports, and estimates the current quality of service for distribution monitoring, fault diagnosis and long-term statistics. The monitor function is likely to be built into the application(s) participating in the session, but may also be a separate application that does not otherwise participate and does not send or receive the RTP data packets. These are called third party monitors.

Non-RTP means: Protocols and mechanisms that may be needed in addition to RTP to provide a usable service. In particular, for multimedia conferences, a conference control application may distribute multicast addresses and keys for encryption, negotiate the encryption algorithm to be used, and define dynamic mappings between RTP payload type values and the payload formats they represent for formats that do not have a predefined payload type value. For simple applications, electronic mail or a conference database may also be used. The specification of such protocols and mechanisms is outside the scope of this document.

4. Byte Order, Alignment, and Time Format

All integer fields are carried in network byte order, that is, most significant byte (octet) first. This byte order is commonly known as big-endian. The transmission order is described in detail in [4]. Unless otherwise noted, numeric constants are in decimal (base 10).

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 9]

1

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

All header data is aligned to its natural length, i.e., 16-bit fields are aligned on even offsets, 32-bit fields are aligned at offsets divisible by four, etc. Octets designated as padding have the value zero.

Wallclock time (absolute time) is represented using the timestamp format of the Network Time Protocol (NTP), which is in seconds relative to 0h UTC on 1 January 1900 [5]. The full resolution NTP timestamp is a 64-bit unsigned fixed-point number with the integer part in the first 32 bits and the fractional part in the last 32 bits. In some fields where a more compact representation is appropriate, only the middle 32 bits are used; that is, the low 16 bits of the integer part and the high 16 bits of the fractional part. The high 16 bits of the integer part must be determined independently.

5. RTP Data Transfer Protocol

5.1 RTP Fixed Header Fields

The RTP header has the following format:

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1
V=2 P X CC M PT										sequence number											

```

+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|           timestamp
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|           synchronization source (SSRC) identifier
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|           contributing source (CSRC) identifiers
|           ...
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+

```

The first twelve octets are present in every RTP packet, while the list of CSRC identifiers is present only when inserted by a mixer. The fields have the following meaning:

version (V): 2 bits

This field identifies the version of RTP. The version defined by this specification is two (2). (The value 1 is used by the first draft version of RTP and the value 0 is used by the protocol initially implemented in the "vat" audio tool.)

padding (P): 1 bit

If the padding bit is set, the packet contains one or more additional padding octets at the end which are not part of the

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 10]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

payload. The last octet of the padding contains a count of how many padding octets should be ignored. Padding may be needed by some encryption algorithms with fixed block sizes or for carrying several RTP packets in a lower-layer protocol data unit.

extension (X): 1 bit

If the extension bit is set, the fixed header is followed by exactly one header extension, with a format defined in Section 5.3.1.

CSRC count (CC): 4 bits

The CSRC count contains the number of CSRC identifiers that follow the fixed header.

marker (M): 1 bit

The interpretation of the marker is defined by a profile. It is intended to allow significant events such as frame boundaries to be marked in the packet stream. A profile may define additional marker bits or specify that there is no marker bit by changing the number of bits in the payload type field (see Section 5.3).

payload type (PT): 7 bits

This field identifies the format of the RTP payload and determines its interpretation by the application. A profile specifies a default static mapping of payload type codes to payload formats. Additional payload type codes may be defined dynamically through non-RTP means (see Section 3). An initial set of default mappings for audio and video is specified in the companion profile Internet-Draft draft-ietf-avt-profile, and may be extended in future editions of the Assigned Numbers RFC [6]. An RTP sender emits a single RTP payload type at any given time; this field is not intended for multiplexing separate media streams (see Section 5.2).

sequence number: 16 bits

The sequence number increments by one for each RTP data packet

sent, and may be used by the receiver to detect packet loss and to restore packet sequence. The initial value of the sequence number is random (unpredictable) to make known-plaintext attacks on encryption more difficult, even if the source itself does not encrypt, because the packets may flow through a translator that does. Techniques for choosing unpredictable numbers are discussed in [7].

timestamp: 32 bits

The timestamp reflects the sampling instant of the first octet in the RTP data packet. The sampling instant must be derived

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 11]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

from a clock that increments monotonically and linearly in time to allow synchronization and jitter calculations (see Section 6.3.1). The resolution of the clock must be sufficient for the desired synchronization accuracy and for measuring packet arrival jitter (one tick per video frame is typically not sufficient). The clock frequency is dependent on the format of data carried as payload and is specified statically in the profile or payload format specification that defines the format, or may be specified dynamically for payload formats defined through non-RTP means. If RTP packets are generated periodically, the nominal sampling instant as determined from the sampling clock is to be used, not a reading of the system clock. As an example, for fixed-rate audio the timestamp clock would likely increment by one for each sampling period. If an audio application reads blocks covering 160 sampling periods from the input device, the timestamp would be increased by 160 for each such block, regardless of whether the block is transmitted in a packet or dropped as silent.

The initial value of the timestamp is random, as for the sequence number. Several consecutive RTP packets may have equal timestamps if they are (logically) generated at once, e.g., belong to the same video frame. Consecutive RTP packets may contain timestamps that are not monotonic if the data is not transmitted in the order it was sampled, as in the case of MPEG interpolated video frames. (The sequence numbers of the packets as transmitted will still be monotonic.)

SSRC: 32 bits

The SSRC field identifies the synchronization source. This identifier is chosen randomly, with the intent that no two synchronization sources within the same RTP session will have the same SSRC identifier. An example algorithm for generating a random identifier is presented in Appendix A.6. Although the probability of multiple sources choosing the same identifier is low, all RTP implementations must be prepared to detect and resolve collisions. Section 8 describes the probability of collision along with a mechanism for resolving collisions and detecting RTP-level forwarding loops based on the uniqueness of the SSRC identifier. If a source changes its source transport address, it must also choose a new SSRC identifier to avoid being interpreted as a looped source.

CSRC list: 0 to 15 items, 32 bits each

The CSRC list identifies the contributing sources for the payload contained in this packet. The number of identifiers is given by the CC field. If there are more than 15 contributing sources, only 15 may be identified. CSRC identifiers are

inserted by mixers, using the SSRC identifiers of contributing sources. For example, for audio packets the SSRC identifiers of all sources that were mixed together to create a packet are listed, allowing correct talker indication at the receiver.

5.2 Multiplexing RTP Sessions

For efficient protocol processing, the number of multiplexing points should be minimized, as described in the integrated layer processing design principle [1]. In RTP, multiplexing is provided by the destination transport address (network address and port number) which define an RTP session. For example, in a teleconference composed of audio and video media encoded separately, each medium should be carried in a separate RTP session with its own destination transport address. It is not intended that the audio and video be carried in a single RTP session and demultiplexed based on the payload type or SSRC fields. Interleaving packets with different payload types but using the same SSRC would introduce several problems:

1. If one payload type were switched during a session, there would be no general means to identify which of the old values the new one replaced.
2. An SSRC is defined to identify a single timing and sequence number space. Interleaving multiple payload types would require different timing spaces if the media clock rates differ and would require different sequence number spaces to tell which payload type suffered packet loss.
3. The RTCP sender and receiver reports (see Section 6.3) can only describe one timing and sequence number space per SSRC and do not carry a payload type field.
4. An RTP mixer would not be able to combine interleaved streams of incompatible media into one stream.
5. Carrying multiple media in one RTP session precludes: the use of different network paths or network resource allocations if appropriate; reception of a subset of the media if desired, for example just audio if video would exceed the available bandwidth; and receiver implementations that use separate processes for the different media, whereas using separate RTP sessions permits either single- or multiple-process implementations.

Using a different SSRC for each medium but sending them in the same RTP session would avoid the first three problems but not the last two.

5.3 Profile-Specific Modifications to the RTP Header

The existing RTP data packet header is believed to be complete for

the set of functions required in common across all the application classes that RTP might support. However, in keeping with the ALF design principle, the header may be tailored through modifications or additions defined in a profile specification while still allowing profile-independent monitoring and recording tools to function.

- o The marker bit and payload type field carry profile-specific information, but they are allocated in the fixed header since many applications are expected to need them and might otherwise have to add another 32-bit word just to hold them. The octet containing these fields may be redefined by a profile to suit different requirements, for example with a more or fewer marker bits. If there are any marker bits, one should be located in the most significant bit of the octet since profile-independent monitors may be able to observe a correlation between packet loss patterns and the marker bit.
- o Additional information that is required for a particular payload format, such as a video encoding, should be carried in the payload section of the packet. This might be in a header that is always present at the start of the payload section, or might be indicated by a reserved value in the data pattern.
- o If a particular class of applications needs additional functionality independent of payload format, the profile under which those applications operate should define additional fixed fields to follow immediately after the SSRC field of the existing fixed header. Those applications will be able to quickly and directly access the additional fields while profile-independent monitors or recorders can still process the RTP packets by interpreting only the first twelve octets.

If it turns out that additional functionality is needed in common across all profiles, then a new version of RTP should be defined to make a permanent change to the fixed header.

5.3.1 RTP Header Extension

An extension mechanism is provided to allow individual implementations to experiment with new payload-format-independent functions that require additional information to be carried in the RTP data packet header. This mechanism is designed so that the header extension may be ignored by other interoperating implementations that have not been extended.

Schulzrinne, et al.
□

Standards Track

[Page 14]

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

Note that this header extension is intended only for limited use. Most potential uses of this mechanism would be better done another way, using the methods described in the previous section. For example, a profile-specific extension to the fixed header is less expensive to process because it is not conditional nor in a variable location. Additional information required for a particular payload format should not use this header extension, but should be carried in the payload section of the packet.

header extension

....

If the X bit in the RTP header is one, a variable-length header extension is appended to the RTP header, following the CSRC list if present. The header extension contains a 16-bit length field that counts the number of 32-bit words in the extension, excluding the four-octet extension header (therefore zero is a valid length). Only a single extension may be appended to the RTP data header. To allow multiple interoperating implementations to each experiment independently with different header extensions, or to allow a particular implementation to experiment with more than one type of header extension, the first 16 bits of the header extension are left open for distinguishing identifiers or parameters. The format of these 16 bits is to be defined by the profile specification under which the implementations are operating. This RTP specification does not define any header extensions itself.

6. RTP Control Protocol -- RTCP

The RTP control protocol (RTCP) is based on the periodic transmission of control packets to all participants in the session, using the same distribution mechanism as the data packets. The underlying protocol must provide multiplexing of the data and control packets, for example using separate port numbers with UDP. RTCP performs four functions:

1. The primary function is to provide feedback on the quality of the data distribution. This is an integral part of the RTP's role as a transport protocol and is related to the flow and congestion control functions of other transport protocols. The feedback may be directly useful for control of adaptive encodings [8,9], but experiments with IP

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 15]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

multicasting have shown that it is also critical to get feedback from the receivers to diagnose faults in the distribution. Sending reception feedback reports to all participants allows one who is observing problems to evaluate whether those problems are local or global. With a distribution mechanism like IP multicast, it is also possible for an entity such as a network service provider who is not otherwise involved in the session to receive the feedback information and act as a third-party monitor to diagnose network problems. This feedback function is performed by the RTCP sender and receiver reports, described below in Section 6.3.

2. RTCP carries a persistent transport-level identifier for an RTP source called the canonical name or CNAME, Section 6.4.1. Since the SSRC identifier may change if a conflict is discovered or a program is restarted, receivers require the CNAME to keep track of each participant. Receivers also require the CNAME to associate multiple data streams from a given participant in a set of related RTP sessions, for example to synchronize audio and video.
3. The first two functions require that all participants send RTCP packets, therefore the rate must be controlled in order for RTP to scale up to a large number of

participants. By having each participant send its control packets to all the others, each can independently observe the number of participants. This number is used to calculate the rate at which the packets are sent, as explained in Section 6.2.

4. A fourth, optional function is to convey minimal session control information, for example participant identification to be displayed in the user interface. This is most likely to be useful in "loosely controlled" sessions where participants enter and leave without membership control or parameter negotiation. RTCP serves as a convenient channel to reach all the participants, but it is not necessarily expected to support all the control communication requirements of an application. A higher-level session control protocol, which is beyond the scope of this document, may be needed.

Functions 1-3 are mandatory when RTP is used in the IP multicast environment, and are recommended for all environments. RTP application designers are advised to avoid mechanisms that can only work in unicast mode and will not scale to larger numbers.

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 16]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

6.1 RTCP Packet Format

This specification defines several RTCP packet types to carry a variety of control information:

SR: Sender report, for transmission and reception statistics from participants that are active senders

RR: Receiver report, for reception statistics from participants that are not active senders

SDES: Source description items, including CNAME

BYE: Indicates end of participation

APP: Application specific functions

Each RTCP packet begins with a fixed part similar to that of RTP data packets, followed by structured elements that may be of variable length according to the packet type but always end on a 32-bit boundary. The alignment requirement and a length field in the fixed part are included to make RTCP packets "stackable". Multiple RTCP packets may be concatenated without any intervening separators to form a compound RTCP packet that is sent in a single packet of the lower layer protocol, for example UDP. There is no explicit count of individual RTCP packets in the compound packet since the lower layer protocols are expected to provide an overall length to determine the end of the compound packet.

Each individual RTCP packet in the compound packet may be processed independently with no requirements upon the order or combination of packets. However, in order to perform the functions of the protocol, the following constraints are imposed:

- o Reception statistics (in SR or RR) should be sent as often as bandwidth constraints will allow to maximize the resolution of

the statistics, therefore each periodically transmitted compound RTCP packet should include a report packet.

- o New receivers need to receive the CNAME for a source as soon as possible to identify the source and to begin associating media for purposes such as lip-sync, so each compound RTCP packet should also include the SDES CNAME.
- o The number of packet types that may appear first in the compound packet should be limited to increase the number of constant bits in the first word and the probability of successfully validating RTCP packets against misaddressed RTP

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 17]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

data packets or other unrelated packets.

Thus, all RTCP packets must be sent in a compound packet of at least two individual packets, with the following format recommended:

Encryption prefix: If and only if the compound packet is to be encrypted, it is prefixed by a random 32-bit quantity redrawn for every compound packet transmitted.

SR or RR: The first RTCP packet in the compound packet must always be a report packet to facilitate header validation as described in Appendix A.2. This is true even if no data has been sent nor received, in which case an empty RR is sent, and even if the only other RTCP packet in the compound packet is a BYE.

Additional RRs: If the number of sources for which reception statistics are being reported exceeds 31, the number that will fit into one SR or RR packet, then additional RR packets should follow the initial report packet.

SDES: An SDES packet containing a CNAME item must be included in each compound RTCP packet. Other source description items may optionally be included if required by a particular application, subject to bandwidth constraints (see Section 6.2.2).

BYE or APP: Other RTCP packet types, including those yet to be defined, may follow in any order, except that BYE should be the last packet sent with a given SSRC/CSRC. Packet types may appear more than once.

It is advisable for translators and mixers to combine individual RTCP packets from the multiple sources they are forwarding into one compound packet whenever feasible in order to amortize the packet overhead (see Section 7). An example RTCP compound packet as might be produced by a mixer is shown in Fig. 1. If the overall length of a compound packet would exceed the maximum transmission unit (MTU) of the network path, it may be segmented into multiple shorter compound packets to be transmitted in separate packets of the underlying protocol. Note that each of the compound packets must begin with an SR or RR packet.

An implementation may ignore incoming RTCP packets with types unknown to it. Additional RTCP packet types may be registered with the Internet Assigned Numbers Authority (IANA).

6.2 RTCP Transmission Interval

```
if encrypted: random 32-bit integer
|
| [----- packet -----] [----- packet -----] [-packet-]
|
|       receiver reports      chunk      chunk
|       V           item   item   item   item
-----
|R[SR|# sender #site#site][SDES|# CNAME PHONE !#CNAME LOC][BYE##why]
|R[ |# report # 1 # 2 ][  |#      |#      ][  ##  ][  ##  ]
|R[ |#      #   # ][  |#      |#      ][  ##  ][  ##  ]
|R[ |#      #   # ][  |#      |#      ][  ##  ][  ##  ]
-----
|<----- UDP packet (compound packet) ----->|
# : SSRC/CSRC
```

Figure 1: Example of an RTCP compound packet

RTP is designed to allow an application to scale automatically over session sizes ranging from a few participants to thousands. For example, in an audio conference the data traffic is inherently self-limiting because only one or two people will speak at a time, so with multicast distribution the data rate on any given link remains relatively constant independent of the number of participants. However, the control traffic is not self-limiting. If the reception reports from each participant were sent at a constant rate, the control traffic would grow linearly with the number of participants. Therefore, the rate must be scaled down.

For each session, it is assumed that the data traffic is subject to an aggregate limit called the "session bandwidth" to be divided among the participants. This bandwidth might be reserved and the limit enforced by the network, or it might just be a reasonable share. The session bandwidth may be chosen based on some cost or a priori knowledge of the available network bandwidth for the session. It is somewhat independent of the media encoding, but the encoding choice may be limited by the session bandwidth. The session bandwidth parameter is expected to be supplied by a session management application when it invokes a media application, but media applications may also set a default based on the single-sender data bandwidth for the encoding selected for the session. The application may also enforce bandwidth limits based on multicast scope rules or other criteria.

Bandwidth calculations for control and data traffic include lower-layer transport and network protocols (e.g., UDP and IP) since that

is what the resource reservation system would need to know. The application can also be expected to know which of these protocols are in use. Link level headers are not included in the calculation since the packet will be encapsulated with different link level headers as it travels.

The control traffic should be limited to a small and known fraction of the session bandwidth: small so that the primary function of the transport protocol to carry data is not impaired; known so that the control traffic can be included in the bandwidth specification given to a resource reservation protocol, and so that each participant can independently calculate its share. It is suggested that the fraction of the session bandwidth allocated to RTCP be fixed at 5%. While the value of this and other constants in the interval calculation is not critical, all participants in the session must use the same values so the same interval will be calculated. Therefore, these constants should be fixed for a particular profile.

The algorithm described in Appendix A.7 was designed to meet the goals outlined above. It calculates the interval between sending compound RTCP packets to divide the allowed control traffic bandwidth among the participants. This allows an application to provide fast response for small sessions where, for example, identification of all participants is important, yet automatically adapt to large sessions. The algorithm incorporates the following characteristics:

- o Senders are collectively allocated at least 1/4 of the control traffic bandwidth so that in sessions with a large number of receivers but a small number of senders, newly joining participants will more quickly receive the CNAME for the sending sites.
- o The calculated interval between RTCP packets is required to be greater than a minimum of 5 seconds to avoid having bursts of RTCP packets exceed the allowed bandwidth when the number of participants is small and the traffic isn't smoothed according to the law of large numbers.
- o The interval between RTCP packets is varied randomly over the range [0.5,1.5] times the calculated interval to avoid unintended synchronization of all participants [10]. The first RTCP packet sent after joining a session is also delayed by a random variation of half the minimum RTCP interval in case the application is started at multiple sites simultaneously, for example as initiated by a session announcement.

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 20]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

- o A dynamic estimate of the average compound RTCP packet size is calculated, including all those received and sent, to automatically adapt to changes in the amount of control information carried.

This algorithm may be used for sessions in which all participants are allowed to send. In that case, the session bandwidth parameter is the product of the individual sender's bandwidth times the number of participants, and the RTCP bandwidth is 5% of that.

6.2.1 Maintaining the number of session members

Calculation of the RTCP packet interval depends upon an estimate of

the number of sites participating in the session. New sites are added to the count when they are heard, and an entry for each is created in a table indexed by the SSRC or CSRC identifier (see Section 8.2) to keep track of them. New entries may not be considered valid until multiple packets carrying the new SSRC have been received (see Appendix A.1). Entries may be deleted from the table when an RTCP BYE packet with the corresponding SSRC identifier is received.

A participant may mark another site inactive, or delete it if not yet valid, if no RTP or RTCP packet has been received for a small number of RTCP report intervals (5 is suggested). This provides some robustness against packet loss. All sites must calculate roughly the same value for the RTCP report interval in order for this timeout to work properly.

Once a site has been validated, then if it is later marked inactive the state for that site should still be retained and the site should continue to be counted in the total number of sites sharing RTCP bandwidth for a period long enough to span typical network partitions. This is to avoid excessive traffic, when the partition heals, due to an RTCP report interval that is too small. A timeout of 30 minutes is suggested. Note that this is still larger than 5 times the largest value to which the RTCP report interval is expected to usefully scale, about 2 to 5 minutes.

6.2.2 Allocation of source description bandwidth

This specification defines several source description (SDES) items in addition to the mandatory CNAME item, such as NAME (personal name) and EMAIL (email address). It also provides a means to define new application-specific RTCP packet types. Applications should exercise caution in allocating control bandwidth to this additional information because it will slow down the rate at which reception reports and CNAME are sent, thus impairing the performance of the protocol. It is recommended that no more than 20% of the RTCP

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 21]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

bandwidth allocated to a single participant be used to carry the additional information. Furthermore, it is not intended that all SDES items should be included in every application. Those that are included should be assigned a fraction of the bandwidth according to their utility. Rather than estimate these fractions dynamically, it is recommended that the percentages be translated statically into report interval counts based on the typical length of an item.

For example, an application may be designed to send only CNAME, NAME and EMAIL and not any others. NAME might be given much higher priority than EMAIL because the NAME would be displayed continuously in the application's user interface, whereas EMAIL would be displayed only when requested. At every RTCP interval, an RR packet and an SDES packet with the CNAME item would be sent. For a small session operating at the minimum interval, that would be every 5 seconds on the average. Every third interval (15 seconds), one extra item would be included in the SDES packet. Seven out of eight times this would be the NAME item, and every eighth time (2 minutes) it would be the EMAIL item.

When multiple applications operate in concert using cross-application binding through a common CNAME for each participant, for example in a multimedia conference composed of an RTP session for each medium, the additional SDES information might be sent in only one RTP session.

The other sessions would carry only the CNAME item.

6.3 Sender and Receiver Reports

RTP receivers provide reception quality feedback using RTCP report packets which may take one of two forms depending upon whether or not the receiver is also a sender. The only difference between the sender report (SR) and receiver report (RR) forms, besides the packet type code, is that the sender report includes a 20-byte sender information section for use by active senders. The SR is issued if a site has sent any data packets during the interval since issuing the last report or the previous one, otherwise the RR is issued.

Both the SR and RR forms include zero or more reception report blocks, one for each of the synchronization sources from which this receiver has received RTP data packets since the last report. Reports are not issued for contributing sources listed in the CSRC list. Each reception report block provides statistics about the data received from the particular source indicated in that block. Since a maximum of 31 reception report blocks will fit in an SR or RR packet, additional RR packets may be stacked after the initial SR or RR packet as needed to contain the reception reports for all sources heard during the interval since the last report.

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 22]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

The next sections define the formats of the two reports, how they may be extended in a profile-specific manner if an application requires additional feedback information, and how the reports may be used. Details of reception reporting by translators and mixers is given in Section 7.

6.3.1 SR: Sender report RTCP packet

The sender report packet consists of three sections, possibly followed by a fourth profile-specific extension section if defined. The first section, the header, is 8 octets long. The fields have the following meaning:

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 23]

□
RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

version (V): 2 bits

Identifies the version of RTP, which is the same in RTCP packets as in RTP data packets. The version defined by this specification is two (2).

padding (P): 1 bit

If the padding bit is set, this RTCP packet contains some additional padding octets at the end which are not part of the control information. The last octet of the padding is a count of how many padding octets should be ignored. Padding may be needed by some encryption algorithms with fixed block sizes. In a compound RTCP packet, padding should only be required on the last individual packet because the compound packet is encrypted as a whole.

reception report count (RC): 5 bits

The number of reception report blocks contained in this packet.
A value of zero is valid.

packet type (PT): 8 bits

Contains the constant 200 to identify this as an RTCP SR packet.

length: 16 bits

The length of this RTCP packet in 32-bit words minus one, including the header and any padding. (The offset of one makes zero a valid length and avoids a possible infinite loop in scanning a compound RTCP packet, while counting 32-bit words avoids a validity check for a multiple of 4.)

SSRC: 32 bits

The synchronization source identifier for the originator of this SR packet.

The second section, the sender information, is 20 octets long and is present in every sender report packet. It summarizes the data transmissions from this sender. The fields have the following meaning:

NTP timestamp: 64 bits

timestamp. 64 bits
Indicates the wallclock time when this report was sent so that it may be used in combination with timestamps returned in reception reports from other receivers to measure round-trip propagation to those receivers. Receivers should expect that the measurement accuracy of the timestamp may be limited to far less than the resolution of the NTP timestamp. The measurement uncertainty of the timestamp is not indicated as it may not be

known. A sender that can keep track of elapsed time but has no notion of wallclock time may use the elapsed time since joining

Schulzrinne, et al
□
RFC 1889

Standards Track
RTP

[Page 24]
January 1996

the session instead. This is assumed to be less than 68 years, so the high bit will be zero. It is permissible to use the sampling clock to estimate elapsed wallclock time. A sender that has no notion of wallclock or elapsed time may set the NTP timestamp to zero.

RTP timestamp: 32 bits

Corresponds to the same time as the NTP timestamp (above), but in the same units and with the same random offset as the RTP timestamps in data packets. This correspondence may be used for intra- and inter-media synchronization for sources whose NTP timestamps are synchronized, and may be used by media-independent receivers to estimate the nominal RTP clock frequency. Note that in most cases this timestamp will not be equal to the RTP timestamp in any adjacent data packet. Rather, it is calculated from the corresponding NTP timestamp using the relationship between the RTP timestamp counter and real time as maintained by periodically checking the wallclock time at a sampling instant.

sender's packet count: 32 bits

The total number of RTP data packets transmitted by the sender since starting transmission up until the time this SR packet was generated. The count is reset if the sender changes its SSRC identifier.

sender's octet count: 32 bits

The total number of payload octets (i.e., not including header or padding) transmitted in RTP data packets by the sender since starting transmission up until the time this SR packet was generated. The count is reset if the sender changes its SSRC identifier. This field can be used to estimate the average payload data rate.

The third section contains zero or more reception report blocks depending on the number of other sources heard by this sender since the last report. Each reception report block conveys statistics on the reception of RTP packets from a single synchronization source. Receivers do not carry over statistics when a source changes its SSRC identifier due to a collision. These statistics are:

SSRC_n (source identifier): 32 bits

The SSRC identifier of the source to which the information in this reception report block pertains.

fraction lost: 8 bits

The fraction of RTP data packets from source SSRC_n lost since the previous SR or RR packet was sent, expressed as a fixed

Schulzrinne, et al
□
RFC 1889

Standards Track
RTP

[Page 25]
January 1996

point number with the binary point at the left edge of the

field. (That is equivalent to taking the integer part after multiplying the loss fraction by 256.) This fraction is defined to be the number of packets lost divided by the number of packets expected, as defined in the next paragraph. An implementation is shown in Appendix A.3. If the loss is negative due to duplicates, the fraction lost is set to zero. Note that a receiver cannot tell whether any packets were lost after the last one received, and that there will be no reception report block issued for a source if all packets from that source sent during the last reporting interval have been lost.

cumulative number of packets lost: 24 bits

The total number of RTP data packets from source SSRC_n that have been lost since the beginning of reception. This number is defined to be the number of packets expected less the number of packets actually received, where the number of packets received includes any which are late or duplicates. Thus packets that arrive late are not counted as lost, and the loss may be negative if there are duplicates. The number of packets expected is defined to be the extended last sequence number received, as defined next, less the initial sequence number received. This may be calculated as shown in Appendix A.3.

extended highest sequence number received: 32 bits

The low 16 bits contain the highest sequence number received in an RTP data packet from source SSRC_n, and the most significant 16 bits extend that sequence number with the corresponding count of sequence number cycles, which may be maintained according to the algorithm in Appendix A.1. Note that different receivers within the same session will generate different extensions to the sequence number if their start times differ significantly.

interarrival jitter: 32 bits

An estimate of the statistical variance of the RTP data packet interarrival time, measured in timestamp units and expressed as an unsigned integer. The interarrival jitter J is defined to be the mean deviation (smoothed absolute value) of the difference D in packet spacing at the receiver compared to the sender for a pair of packets. As shown in the equation below, this is equivalent to the difference in the "relative transit time" for the two packets; the relative transit time is the difference between a packet's RTP timestamp and the receiver's clock at the time of arrival, measured in the same units.

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 26]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

If S_i is the RTP timestamp from packet i , and R_i is the time of arrival in RTP timestamp units for packet i , then for two packets i and j , D may be expressed as

$$D(i,j) = (R_j - R_i) - (S_j - S_i) = (R_j - S_j) - (R_i - S_i)$$

The interarrival jitter is calculated continuously as each data packet i is received from source SSRC_n, using this difference D for that packet and the previous packet $i-1$ in order of arrival (not necessarily in sequence), according to the formula

$$J = J + (|D(i-1,i)| - J) / 16$$

Whenever a reception report is issued, the current value of J is sampled.

The jitter calculation is prescribed here to allow profile-independent monitors to make valid interpretations of reports coming from different implementations. This algorithm is the optimal first-order estimator and the gain parameter 1/16 gives a good noise reduction ratio while maintaining a reasonable rate of convergence [11]. A sample implementation is shown in Appendix A.8.

last SR timestamp (LSR): 32 bits

The middle 32 bits out of 64 in the NTP timestamp (as explained in Section 4) received as part of the most recent RTCP sender report (SR) packet from source SSRC_n. If no SR has been received yet, the field is set to zero.

delay since last SR (DLSR): 32 bits

The delay, expressed in units of 1/65536 seconds, between receiving the last SR packet from source SSRC_n and sending this reception report block. If no SR packet has been received yet from SSRC_n, the DLSR field is set to zero.

Let SSRC_r denote the receiver issuing this receiver report. Source SSRC_n can compute the round propagation delay to SSRC_r by recording the time A when this reception report block is received. It calculates the total round-trip time A-LSR using the last SR timestamp (LSR) field, and then subtracting this field to leave the round-trip propagation delay as (A- LSR - DLSR). This is illustrated in Fig. 2.

This may be used as an approximate measure of distance to cluster receivers, although some links have very asymmetric delays.

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 27]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

6.3.2 RR: Receiver report RTCP packet

```
[10 Nov 1995 11:33:25.125]          [10 Nov 1995 11:33:36.5]
n          SR(n)          A=b710:8000 (46864.500 s)
----->
v          v          ^
ntp_sec =0xb44db705 v          dlsr=0x0005.4000 ( 5.250s)
ntp_frac=0x20000000 v          lsr =0xb705:2000 (46853.125s)
  (3024992016.125 s) v          ^
r          v          RR(n)
----->
|<-DLSR->|
(5.250 s)

A      0xb710:8000 (46864.500 s)
DLSR -0x0005:4000 ( 5.250 s)
LSR   -0xb705:2000 (46853.125 s)
-----
delay 0x  6:2000 ( 6.125 s)
```

Figure 2: Example for round-trip time computation

```

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1
+-+-+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+
|V=2|P|    RC   |    PT=RR=201   |           length           | header
+-+-+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+
|           SSRC of packet sender           |
+-+-+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+
|           SSRC_1 (SSRC of first source)           | report
+-+-+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+
| fraction lost |     cumulative number of packets lost | 1
+-+-+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+
|           extended highest sequence number received |
+-+-+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+
|           interarrival jitter           |
+-+-+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+
|           last SR (LSR)           |
+-+-+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+
|           delay since last SR (DLSR)           |
+-+-+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+
|           SSRC_2 (SSRC of second source)           | report
+-+-+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+
|           ...           : 2
+-+-+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+
|           profile-specific extensions           |
+-+-+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+

```

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 28]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

The format of the receiver report (RR) packet is the same as that of the SR packet except that the packet type field contains the constant 201 and the five words of sender information are omitted (these are the NTP and RTP timestamps and sender's packet and octet counts). The remaining fields have the same meaning as for the SR packet.

An empty RR packet (RC = 0) is put at the head of a compound RTCP packet when there is no data transmission or reception to report.

6.3.3 Extending the sender and receiver reports

A profile should define profile- or application-specific extensions to the sender report and receiver if there is additional information that should be reported regularly about the sender or receivers. This method should be used in preference to defining another RTCP packet type because it requires less overhead:

- o fewer octets in the packet (no RTCP header or SSRC field);
- o simpler and faster parsing because applications running under that profile would be programmed to always expect the extension fields in the directly accessible location after the reception reports.

If additional sender information is required, it should be included first in the extension for sender reports, but would not be present in receiver reports. If information about receivers is to be included, that data may be structured as an array of blocks parallel to the existing array of reception report blocks; that is, the number of blocks would be indicated by the RC field.

6.3.4 Analyzing sender and receiver reports

It is expected that reception quality feedback will be useful not

only for the sender but also for other receivers and third-party monitors. The sender may modify its transmissions based on the feedback; receivers can determine whether problems are local, regional or global; network managers may use profile-independent monitors that receive only the RTCP packets and not the corresponding RTP data packets to evaluate the performance of their networks for multicast distribution.

Cumulative counts are used in both the sender information and receiver report blocks so that differences may be calculated between any two reports to make measurements over both short and long time periods, and to provide resilience against the loss of a report. The difference between the last two reports received can be used to estimate the recent quality of the distribution. The NTP timestamp is

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 29]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

included so that rates may be calculated from these differences over the interval between two reports. Since that timestamp is independent of the clock rate for the data encoding, it is possible to implement encoding- and profile-independent quality monitors.

An example calculation is the packet loss rate over the interval between two reception reports. The difference in the cumulative number of packets lost gives the number lost during that interval. The difference in the extended last sequence numbers received gives the number of packets expected during the interval. The ratio of these two is the packet loss fraction over the interval. This ratio should equal the fraction lost field if the two reports are consecutive, but otherwise not. The loss rate per second can be obtained by dividing the loss fraction by the difference in NTP timestamps, expressed in seconds. The number of packets received is the number of packets expected minus the number lost. The number of packets expected may also be used to judge the statistical validity of any loss estimates. For example, 1 out of 5 packets lost has a lower significance than 200 out of 1000.

From the sender information, a third-party monitor can calculate the average payload data rate and the average packet rate over an interval without receiving the data. Taking the ratio of the two gives the average payload size. If it can be assumed that packet loss is independent of packet size, then the number of packets received by a particular receiver times the average payload size (or the corresponding packet size) gives the apparent throughput available to that receiver.

In addition to the cumulative counts which allow long-term packet loss measurements using differences between reports, the fraction lost field provides a short-term measurement from a single report. This becomes more important as the size of a session scales up enough that reception state information might not be kept for all receivers or the interval between reports becomes long enough that only one report might have been received from a particular receiver.

The interarrival jitter field provides a second short-term measure of network congestion. Packet loss tracks persistent congestion while the jitter measure tracks transient congestion. The jitter measure may indicate congestion before it leads to packet loss. Since the interarrival jitter field is only a snapshot of the jitter at the time of a report, it may be necessary to analyze a number of reports from one receiver over time or from multiple receivers, e.g., within a single network.

6.4 SDES: Source description RTCP packet

```
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|V=2|P|  SC | PT=SDES=202 | length | header
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|           SSRC/CSRC_1 | chunk
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|           SDES items |
|           ...
|           SSRC/CSRC_2 | chunk
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|           SDES items |
|           ...
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
```

The SDES packet is a three-level structure composed of a header and zero or more chunks, each of which is composed of items describing the source identified in that chunk. The items are described individually in subsequent sections.

version (V), padding (P), length:
As described for the SR packet (see Section 6.3.1).

packet type (PT): 8 bits
Contains the constant 202 to identify this as an RTCP SDES packet.

source count (SC): 5 bits
The number of SSRC/CSRC chunks contained in this SDES packet. A value of zero is valid but useless.

Each chunk consists of an SSRC/CSRC identifier followed by a list of zero or more items, which carry information about the SSRC/CSRC. Each chunk starts on a 32-bit boundary. Each item consists of an 8-bit type field, an 8-bit octet count describing the length of the text (thus, not including this two-octet header), and the text itself. Note that the text can be no longer than 255 octets, but this is consistent with the need to limit RTCP bandwidth consumption.

The text is encoded according to the UTF-2 encoding specified in Annex F of ISO standard 10646 [12,13]. This encoding is also known as UTF-8 or UTF-FSS. It is described in "File System Safe UCS Transformation Format (FSS_UTF)", X/Open Preliminary Specification, Document Number P316 and Unicode Technical Report #4. US-ASCII is a subset of this encoding and requires no additional encoding. The

presence of multi-octet encodings is indicated by setting the most significant bit of a character to a value of one.

Items are contiguous, i.e., items are not individually padded to a 32-bit boundary. Text is not null terminated because some multi-octet encodings include null octets. The list of items in each chunk is terminated by one or more null octets, the first of which is interpreted as an item type of zero to denote the end of the list, and the remainder as needed to pad until the next 32-bit boundary. A chunk with zero items (four null octets) is valid but useless.

End systems send one SDES packet containing their own source identifier (the same as the SSRC in the fixed RTP header). A mixer sends one SDES packet containing a chunk for each contributing source from which it is receiving SDES information, or multiple complete SDES packets in the format above if there are more than 31 such sources (see Section 7).

The SDES items currently defined are described in the next sections. Only the CNAME item is mandatory. Some items shown here may be useful only for particular profiles, but the item types are all assigned from one common space to promote shared use and to simplify profile-independent applications. Additional items may be defined in a profile by registering the type numbers with IANA.

6.4.1 CNAME: Canonical end-point identifier SDES item

The CNAME identifier has the following properties:

- o Because the randomly allocated SSRC identifier may change if a conflict is discovered or if a program is restarted, the CNAME item is required to provide the binding from the SSRC identifier to an identifier for the source that remains constant.
- o Like the SSRC identifier, the CNAME identifier should also be unique among all participants within one RTP session.
- o To provide a binding across multiple media tools used by one participant in a set of related RTP sessions, the CNAME should be fixed for that participant.

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 32]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

- o To facilitate third-party monitoring, the CNAME should be suitable for either a program or a person to locate the source.

Therefore, the CNAME should be derived algorithmically and not entered manually, when possible. To meet these requirements, the following format should be used unless a profile specifies an alternate syntax or semantics. The CNAME item should have the format "user@host", or "host" if a user name is not available as on single-user systems. For both formats, "host" is either the fully qualified domain name of the host from which the real-time data originates, formatted according to the rules specified in RFC 1034 [14], RFC 1035

[15] and Section 2.1 of RFC 1123 [16]; or the standard ASCII representation of the host's numeric address on the interface used for the RTP communication. For example, the standard ASCII representation of an IP Version 4 address is "dotted decimal", also known as dotted quad. Other address types are expected to have ASCII representations that are mutually unique. The fully qualified domain name is more convenient for a human observer and may avoid the need to send a NAME item in addition, but it may be difficult or impossible to obtain reliably in some operating environments. Applications that may be run in such environments should use the ASCII representation of the address instead.

Examples are "doe@sleepy.megacorp.com" or "doe@192.0.2.89" for a multi-user system. On a system with no user name, examples would be "sleepy.megacorp.com" or "192.0.2.89".

The user name should be in a form that a program such as "finger" or "talk" could use, i.e., it typically is the login name rather than the personal name. The host name is not necessarily identical to the one in the participant's electronic mail address.

This syntax will not provide unique identifiers for each source if an application permits a user to generate multiple sources from one host. Such an application would have to rely on the SSRC to further identify the source, or the profile for that application would have to specify additional syntax for the CNAME identifier.

If each application creates its CNAME independently, the resulting CNAMEs may not be identical as would be required to provide a binding across multiple media tools belonging to one participant in a set of related RTP sessions. If cross-media binding is required, it may be necessary for the CNAME of each tool to be externally configured with the same value by a coordination tool.

Application writers should be aware that private network address assignments such as the Net-10 assignment proposed in RFC 1597 [17] may create network addresses that are not globally unique. This would

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 33]

1

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

lead to non-unique CNAMEs if hosts with private addresses and no direct IP connectivity to the public Internet have their RTP packets forwarded to the public Internet through an RTP-level translator. (See also RFC 1627 [18].) To handle this case, applications may provide a means to configure a unique CNAME, but the burden is on the translator to translate CNAMEs from private addresses to public addresses if necessary to keep private addresses from being exposed.

6.4.2 NAME: User name SDES item

This is the real name used to describe the source, e.g., "John Doe, Bit Recycler, Megacorp". It may be in any form desired by the user. For applications such as conferencing, this form of name may be the most desirable for display in participant lists, and therefore might be sent most frequently of those items other than CNAME. Profiles may establish such priorities. The NAME value is expected to remain

constant at least for the duration of a session. It should not be relied upon to be unique among all participants in the session.

6.4.3 EMAIL: Electronic mail address SDES item

0	1	2	3
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1	
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+			
EMAIL=3	length	email address of source	...
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+			

The email address is formatted according to RFC 822 [19], for example, "John.Doe@megacorp.com". The EMAIL value is expected to remain constant for the duration of a session.

6.4.4 PHONE: Phone number SDES item

0	1	2	3
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1	
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+			
PHONE=4	length	phone number of source	...
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+			

The phone number should be formatted with the plus sign replacing the international access code. For example, "+1 908 555 1212" for a number in the United States.

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 34]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

6.4.5 LOC: Geographic user location SDES item

0	1	2	3
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1	
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+			
LOC=5	length	geographic location of site	...
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+			

Depending on the application, different degrees of detail are appropriate for this item. For conference applications, a string like "Murray Hill, New Jersey" may be sufficient, while, for an active badge system, strings like "Room 2A244, AT&T BL MH" might be appropriate. The degree of detail is left to the implementation and/or user, but format and content may be prescribed by a profile. The LOC value is expected to remain constant for the duration of a session, except for mobile hosts.

6.4.6 TOOL: Application or tool name SDES item

0	1	2	3
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1	
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+			
TOOL=6	length	name/version of source appl.	...
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+			

A string giving the name and possibly version of the application generating the stream, e.g., "videotool 1.2". This information may be useful for debugging purposes and is similar to the Mailer or Mail-System-Version SMTP headers. The TOOL value is expected to remain constant for the duration of the session.

6.4.7 NOTE: Notice/status SDES item

```

0           1           2           3
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|      NOTE=7      |      length      | note about the source      ...
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+

```

The following semantics are suggested for this item, but these or other semantics may be explicitly defined by a profile. The NOTE item is intended for transient messages describing the current state of the source, e.g., "on the phone, can't talk". Or, during a seminar, this item might be used to convey the title of the talk. It should be used only to carry exceptional information and should not be included routinely by all participants because this would slow down the rate at which reception reports and CNAME are sent, thus impairing the performance of the protocol. In particular, it should not be included

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 35]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

as an item in a user's configuration file nor automatically generated as in a quote-of-the-day.

Since the NOTE item may be important to display while it is active, the rate at which other non-CNAME items such as NAME are transmitted might be reduced so that the NOTE item can take that part of the RTCP bandwidth. When the transient message becomes inactive, the NOTE item should continue to be transmitted a few times at the same repetition rate but with a string of length zero to signal the receivers. However, receivers should also consider the NOTE item inactive if it is not received for a small multiple of the repetition rate, or perhaps 20-30 RTCP intervals.

6.4.8 PRIV: Private extensions SDES item

```

0           1           2           3
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|      PRIV=8      |      length      | prefix length | prefix string...
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|                           | value string      ...
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+

```

This item is used to define experimental or application-specific SDES extensions. The item contains a prefix consisting of a length-string pair, followed by the value string filling the remainder of the item and carrying the desired information. The prefix length field is 8 bits long. The prefix string is a name chosen by the person defining the PRIV item to be unique with respect to other PRIV items this application might receive. The application creator might choose to use the application name plus an additional subtype identification if needed. Alternatively, it is recommended that others choose a name based on the entity they represent, then coordinate the use of the name within that entity.

Note that the prefix consumes some space within the item's total length of 255 octets, so the prefix should be kept as short as possible. This facility and the constrained RTCP bandwidth should not be overloaded; it is not intended to satisfy all the control communication requirements of all applications.

SDES PRIV prefixes will not be registered by IANA. If some form of the PRIV item proves to be of general utility, it should instead be assigned a regular SDES item type registered with IANA so that no

prefix is required. This simplifies use and increases transmission efficiency.

Schulzrinne, et al
□
RFC 1889

Standards Track
RTP

[Page 36]
January 1996

6.5 BYE: Goodbye RTCP packet

0	1	2	3
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1			
++	++	++	++
V=2 P	SC	PT=BYE=203	length
++	++	++	++
	SSRC/CSRC		
++	++	++	++
:	...		:
+=	+=	+=	+=
	length	reason for leaving	... (opt)
++	++	++	++

The BYE packet indicates that one or more sources are no longer active.

version (V), padding (P), length:
As described for the SR packet (see Section 6.3.1).

packet type (PT): 8 bits
Contains the constant 203 to identify this as an RTCP BYE packet.

source count (SC): 5 bits
The number of SSRC/CSRC identifiers included in this BYE packet.
A count value of zero is valid, but useless.

If a BYE packet is received by a mixer, the mixer forwards the BYE packet with the SSRC/CSRC identifier(s) unchanged. If a mixer shuts down, it should send a BYE packet listing all contributing sources it handles, as well as its own SSRC identifier. Optionally, the BYE packet may include an 8-bit octet count followed by that many octets of text indicating the reason for leaving, e.g., "camera malfunction" or "RTP loop detected". The string has the same encoding as that described for SDES. If the string fills the packet to the next 32-bit boundary, the string is not null terminated. If not, the BYE packet is padded with null octets.

Schulzrinne, et al
□
RFC 1889

Standards Track
RTP

[Page 37]
January 1996

6.6 APP: Application-defined RTCP packet

```
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1
+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+
|V=2|P| subtype | PT=APP=204 | length
+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+
| SSRC/CSRC
+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+
| name (ASCII)
+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+
| application-dependent data ...
+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+
```

The APP packet is intended for experimental use as new applications and new features are developed, without requiring packet type value registration. APP packets with unrecognized names should be ignored. After testing and if wider use is justified, it is recommended that each APP packet be redefined without the subtype and name fields and registered with the Internet Assigned Numbers Authority using an RTCP packet type.

version (V), padding (P), length:
As described for the SR packet (see Section 6.3.1).

subtype: 5 bits

May be used as a subtype to allow a set of APP packets to be defined under one unique name, or for any application-dependent data.

packet type (PT): 8 bits

Contains the constant 204 to identify this as an RTCP APP packet.

name: 4 octets

A name chosen by the person defining the set of APP packets to be unique with respect to other APP packets this application might receive. The application creator might choose to use the application name, and then coordinate the allocation of subtype values to others who want to define new packet types for the application. Alternatively, it is recommended that others choose a name based on the entity they represent, then coordinate the use of the name within that entity. The name is interpreted as a sequence of four ASCII characters, with uppercase and lowercase characters treated as distinct.

application-dependent data: variable length

Application-dependent data may or may not appear in an APP packet. It is interpreted by the application and not RTP itself. It must be a multiple of 32 bits long.

7. RTP Translators and Mixers

In addition to end systems, RTP supports the notion of "translators" and "mixers", which could be considered as "intermediate systems" at the RTP level. Although this support adds some complexity to the

protocol, the need for these functions has been clearly established by experiments with multicast audio and video applications in the Internet. Example uses of translators and mixers given in Section 2.3 stem from the presence of firewalls and low bandwidth connections, both of which are likely to remain.

7.1 General Description

An RTP translator/mixer connects two or more transport-level "clouds". Typically, each cloud is defined by a common network and transport protocol (e.g., IP/UDP), multicast address or pair of unicast addresses, and transport level destination port. (Network-level protocol translators, such as IP version 4 to IP version 6, may be present within a cloud invisibly to RTP.) One system may serve as a translator or mixer for a number of RTP sessions, but each is considered a logically separate entity.

In order to avoid creating a loop when a translator or mixer is installed, the following rules must be observed:

- o Each of the clouds connected by translators and mixers participating in one RTP session either must be distinct from all the others in at least one of these parameters (protocol, address, port), or must be isolated at the network level from the others.
- o A derivative of the first rule is that there must not be multiple translators or mixers connected in parallel unless by some arrangement they partition the set of sources to be forwarded.

Similarly, all RTP end systems that can communicate through one or more RTP translators or mixers share the same SSRC space, that is, the SSRC identifiers must be unique among all these end systems. Section 8.2 describes the collision resolution algorithm by which SSRC identifiers are kept unique and loops are detected.

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 39]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

There may be many varieties of translators and mixers designed for different purposes and applications. Some examples are to add or remove encryption, change the encoding of the data or the underlying protocols, or replicate between a multicast address and one or more unicast addresses. The distinction between translators and mixers is that a translator passes through the data streams from different sources separately, whereas a mixer combines them to form one new stream:

Translator: Forwards RTP packets with their SSRC identifier intact; this makes it possible for receivers to identify individual sources even though packets from all the sources pass through the same translator and carry the translator's network source address. Some kinds of translators will pass through the data untouched, but others may change the encoding of the data and thus the RTP data payload type and timestamp. If multiple data packets are re-encoded into one, or vice versa, a translator must assign new sequence numbers to the outgoing packets. Losses in the incoming packet stream may induce corresponding gaps in the outgoing sequence numbers. Receivers cannot detect the presence of a translator unless they know by some other means

what payload type or transport address was used by the original source.

Mixer: Receives streams of RTP data packets from one or more sources, possibly changes the data format, combines the streams in some manner and then forwards the combined stream. Since the timing among multiple input sources will not generally be synchronized, the mixer will make timing adjustments among the streams and generate its own timing for the combined stream, so it is the synchronization source. Thus, all data packets forwarded by a mixer will be marked with the mixer's own SSRC identifier. In order to preserve the identity of the original sources contributing to the mixed packet, the mixer should insert their SSRC identifiers into the CSRC identifier list following the fixed RTP header of the packet. A mixer that is also itself a contributing source for some packet should explicitly include its own SSRC identifier in the CSRC list for that packet.

For some applications, it may be acceptable for a mixer not to identify sources in the CSRC list. However, this introduces the danger that loops involving those sources could not be detected.

The advantage of a mixer over a translator for applications like audio is that the output bandwidth is limited to that of one source even when multiple sources are active on the input side. This may be important for low-bandwidth links. The disadvantage is that receivers on the output side don't have any control over which sources are

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 40]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

passed through or muted, unless some mechanism is implemented for remote control of the mixer. The regeneration of synchronization information by mixers also means that receivers can't do inter-media synchronization of the original streams. A multi-media mixer could do it.

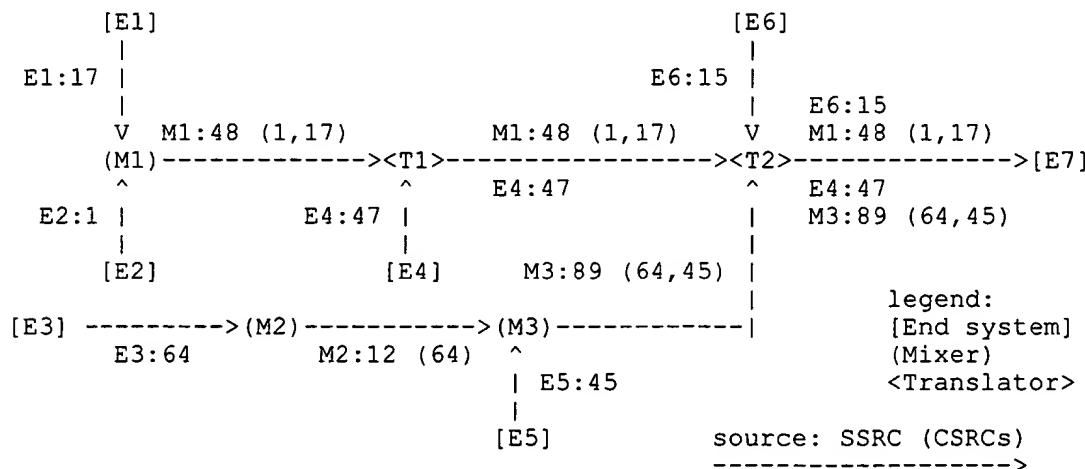


Figure 3: Sample RTP network with end systems, mixers and translators

A collection of mixers and translators is shown in Figure 3 to illustrate their effect on SSRC and CSRC identifiers. In the figure, end systems are shown as rectangles (named E), translators as triangles (named T) and mixers as ovals (named M). The notation "M1: 48(1,17)" designates a packet originating a mixer M1, identified with

M1's (random) SSRC value of 48 and two CSRC identifiers, 1 and 17, copied from the SSRC identifiers of packets from E1 and E2.

7.2 RTCP Processing in Translators

In addition to forwarding data packets, perhaps modified, translators and mixers must also process RTCP packets. In many cases, they will take apart the compound RTCP packets received from end systems to aggregate SDES information and to modify the SR or RR packets. Retransmission of this information may be triggered by the packet arrival or by the RTCP interval timer of the translator or mixer itself.

A translator that does not modify the data packets, for example one that just replicates between a multicast address and a unicast address, may simply forward RTCP packets unmodified as well. A

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 41]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

translator that transforms the payload in some way must make corresponding transformations in the SR and RR information so that it still reflects the characteristics of the data and the reception quality. These translators must not simply forward RTCP packets. In general, a translator should not aggregate SR and RR packets from different sources into one packet since that would reduce the accuracy of the propagation delay measurements based on the LSR and DLSR fields.

SR sender information: A translator does not generate its own sender information, but forwards the SR packets received from one cloud to the others. The SSRC is left intact but the sender information must be modified if required by the translation. If a translator changes the data encoding, it must change the "sender's byte count" field. If it also combines several data packets into one output packet, it must change the "sender's packet count" field. If it changes the timestamp frequency, it must change the "RTP timestamp" field in the SR packet.

SR/RR reception report blocks: A translator forwards reception reports received from one cloud to the others. Note that these flow in the direction opposite to the data. The SSRC is left intact. If a translator combines several data packets into one output packet, and therefore changes the sequence numbers, it must make the inverse manipulation for the packet loss fields and the "extended last sequence number" field. This may be complex. In the extreme case, there may be no meaningful way to translate the reception reports, so the translator may pass on no reception report at all or a synthetic report based on its own reception. The general rule is to do what makes sense for a particular translation.

A translator does not require an SSRC identifier of its own, but may choose to allocate one for the purpose of sending reports about what it has received. These would be sent to all the connected clouds, each corresponding to the translation of the data stream as sent to that cloud, since reception reports are normally multicast to all participants.

SDES: Translators typically forward without change the SDES information they receive from one cloud to the others, but may, for example, decide to filter non-CNAME SDES information if bandwidth is limited. The CNAMEs must be forwarded to allow SSRC

identifier collision detection to work. A translator that generates its own RR packets must send SDES CNAME information about itself to the same clouds that it sends those RR packets.

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 42]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

BYE: Translators forward BYE packets unchanged. Translators with their own SSRC should generate BYE packets with that SSRC identifier if they are about to cease forwarding packets.

APP: Translators forward APP packets unchanged.

7.3 RTCP Processing in Mixers

Since a mixer generates a new data stream of its own, it does not pass through SR or RR packets at all and instead generates new information for both sides.

SR sender information: A mixer does not pass through sender information from the sources it mixes because the characteristics of the source streams are lost in the mix. As a synchronization source, the mixer generates its own SR packets with sender information about the mixed data stream and sends them in the same direction as the mixed stream.

SR/RR reception report blocks: A mixer generates its own reception reports for sources in each cloud and sends them out only to the same cloud. It does not send these reception reports to the other clouds and does not forward reception reports from one cloud to the others because the sources would not be SSRCs there (only CSRCs).

SDES: Mixers typically forward without change the SDES information they receive from one cloud to the others, but may, for example, decide to filter non-CNAME SDES information if bandwidth is limited. The CNAMEs must be forwarded to allow SSRC identifier collision detection to work. (An identifier in a CSRC list generated by a mixer might collide with an SSRC identifier generated by an end system.) A mixer must send SDES CNAME information about itself to the same clouds that it sends SR or RR packets.

Since mixers do not forward SR or RR packets, they will typically be extracting SDES packets from a compound RTCP packet. To minimize overhead, chunks from the SDES packets may be aggregated into a single SDES packet which is then stacked on an SR or RR packet originating from the mixer. The RTCP packet rate may be different on each side of the mixer.

A mixer that does not insert CSRC identifiers may also refrain from forwarding SDES CNAMEs. In this case, the SSRC identifier spaces in the two clouds are independent. As mentioned earlier, this mode of operation creates a danger that loops can't be detected.

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 43]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

BYE: Mixers need to forward BYE packets. They should generate BYE packets with their own SSRC identifiers if they are about to cease forwarding packets.

APP: The treatment of APP packets by mixers is application-specific.

7.4 Cascaded Mixers

An RTP session may involve a collection of mixers and translators as shown in Figure 3. If two mixers are cascaded, such as M2 and M3 in the figure, packets received by a mixer may already have been mixed and may include a CSRC list with multiple identifiers. The second mixer should build the CSRC list for the outgoing packet using the CSRC identifiers from already-mixed input packets and the SSRC identifiers from unmixed input packets. This is shown in the output arc from mixer M3 labeled M3:89(64,45) in the figure. As in the case of mixers that are not cascaded, if the resulting CSRC list has more than 15 identifiers, the remainder cannot be included.

8. SSRC Identifier Allocation and Use

The SSRC identifier carried in the RTP header and in various fields of RTCP packets is a random 32-bit number that is required to be globally unique within an RTP session. It is crucial that the number be chosen with care in order that participants on the same network or starting at the same time are not likely to choose the same number.

It is not sufficient to use the local network address (such as an IPv4 address) for the identifier because the address may not be unique. Since RTP translators and mixers enable interoperation among multiple networks with different address spaces, the allocation patterns for addresses within two spaces might result in a much higher rate of collision than would occur with random allocation.

Multiple sources running on one host would also conflict.

It is also not sufficient to obtain an SSRC identifier simply by calling random() without carefully initializing the state. An example of how to generate a random identifier is presented in Appendix A.6.

8.1 Probability of Collision

Since the identifiers are chosen randomly, it is possible that two or more sources will choose the same number. Collision occurs with the highest probability when all sources are started simultaneously, for example when triggered automatically by some session management event. If N is the number of sources and L the length of the identifier (here, 32 bits), the probability that two sources

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 44]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

independently pick the same value can be approximated for large N [20] as $1 - \exp(-N^2 / 2^{L+1})$. For $N=1000$, the probability is roughly 10^{-4} .

The typical collision probability is much lower than the worst-case above. When one new source joins an RTP session in which all the other sources already have unique identifiers, the probability of collision is just the fraction of numbers used out of the space. Again, if N is the number of sources and L the length of the

identifier, the probability of collision is $N / 2^{**L}$. For $N=1000$, the probability is roughly $2*10^{**-7}$.

The probability of collision is further reduced by the opportunity for a new source to receive packets from other participants before sending its first packet (either data or control). If the new source keeps track of the other participants (by SSRC identifier), then before transmitting its first packet the new source can verify that its identifier does not conflict with any that have been received, or else choose again.

8.2 Collision Resolution and Loop Detection

Although the probability of SSRC identifier collision is low, all RTP implementations must be prepared to detect collisions and take the appropriate actions to resolve them. If a source discovers at any time that another source is using the same SSRC identifier as its own, it must send an RTCP BYE packet for the old identifier and choose another random one. If a receiver discovers that two other sources are colliding, it may keep the packets from one and discard the packets from the other when this can be detected by different source transport addresses or CNAMEs. The two sources are expected to resolve the collision so that the situation doesn't last.

Because the random identifiers are kept globally unique for each RTP session, they can also be used to detect loops that may be introduced by mixers or translators. A loop causes duplication of data and control information, either unmodified or possibly mixed, as in the following examples:

- o A translator may incorrectly forward a packet to the same multicast group from which it has received the packet, either directly or through a chain of translators. In that case, the same packet appears several times, originating from different network sources.
- o Two translators incorrectly set up in parallel, i.e., with the same multicast groups on both sides, would both forward packets from one multicast group to the other. Unidirectional

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 45]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

translators would produce two copies; bidirectional translators would form a loop.

- o A mixer can close a loop by sending to the same transport destination upon which it receives packets, either directly or through another mixer or translator. In this case a source might show up both as an SSRC on a data packet and a CSRC in a mixed data packet.

A source may discover that its own packets are being looped, or that packets from another source are being looped (a third-party loop).

Both loops and collisions in the random selection of a source identifier result in packets arriving with the same SSRC identifier but a different source transport address, which may be that of the end system originating the packet or an intermediate system. Consequently, if a source changes its source transport address, it must also choose a new SSRC identifier to avoid being interpreted as a looped source. Loops or collisions occurring on the far side of a translator or mixer cannot be detected using the source transport

address if all copies of the packets go through the translator or mixer, however collisions may still be detected when chunks from two RTCP SDES packets contain the same SSRC identifier but different CNAMEs.

To detect and resolve these conflicts, an RTP implementation must include an algorithm similar to the one described below. It ignores packets from a new source or loop that collide with an established source. It resolves collisions with the participant's own SSRC identifier by sending an RTCP BYE for the old identifier and choosing a new one. However, when the collision was induced by a loop of the participant's own packets, the algorithm will choose a new identifier only once and thereafter ignore packets from the looping source transport address. This is required to avoid a flood of BYE packets.

This algorithm depends upon the source transport address being the same for both RTP and RTCP packets from a source. The algorithm would require modifications to support applications that don't meet this constraint.

This algorithm requires keeping a table indexed by source identifiers and containing the source transport address from which the identifier was (first) received, along with other state for that source. Each SSRC or CSRC identifier received in a data or control packet is looked up in this table in order to process that data or control information. For control packets, each element with its own SSRC, for example an SDES chunk, requires a separate lookup. (The SSRC in a reception report block is an exception.) If the SSRC or CSRC is not

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 46]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

found, a new entry is created. These table entries are removed when an RTCP BYE packet is received with the corresponding SSRC, or after no packets have arrived for a relatively long time (see Section 6.2.1).

In order to track loops of the participant's own data packets, it is also necessary to keep a separate list of source transport addresses (not identifiers) that have been found to be conflicting. Note that this should be a short list, usually empty. Each element in this list stores the source address plus the time when the most recent conflicting packet was received. An element may be removed from the list when no conflicting packet has arrived from that source for a time on the order of 10 RTCP report intervals (see Section 6.2).

For the algorithm as shown, it is assumed that the participant's own source identifier and state are included in the source identifier table. The algorithm could be restructured to first make a separate comparison against the participant's own source identifier.

```
IF the SSRC or CSRC identifier is not found in the source
    identifier table:
THEN create a new entry storing the source transport address
    and the SSRC or CSRC along with other state.
CONTINUE with normal processing.
```

(identifier is found in the table)

```
IF the source transport address from the packet matches
    the one saved in the table entry for this identifier:
THEN CONTINUE with normal processing.
```

(an identifier collision or a loop is indicated)

IF the source identifier is not the participant's own:
THEN IF the source identifier is from an RTCP SDES chunk
containing a CNAME item that differs from the CNAME
in the table entry:
THEN (optionally) count a third-party collision.
ELSE (optionally) count a third-party loop.
ABORT processing of data packet or control element.

(a collision or loop of the participant's own data)

IF the source transport address is found in the list of
conflicting addresses:
THEN IF the source identifier is not from an RTCP SDES chunk
containing a CNAME item OR if that CNAME is the
participant's own:

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 47]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

THEN (optionally) count occurrence of own traffic looped.
mark current time in conflicting address list entry.
ABORT processing of data packet or control element.
log occurrence of a collision.
create a new entry in the conflicting address list and
mark current time.
send an RTCP BYE packet with the old SSRC identifier.
choose a new identifier.
create a new entry in the source identifier table with the
old SSRC plus the source transport address from the packet
being processed.
CONTINUE with normal processing.

In this algorithm, packets from a newly conflicting source address
will be ignored and packets from the original source will be kept.
(If the original source was through a mixer and later the same source
is received directly, the receiver may be well advised to switch
unless other sources in the mix would be lost.) If no packets arrive
from the original source for an extended period, the table entry will
be timed out and the new source will be able to take over. This might
occur if the original source detects the collision and moves to a new
source identifier, but in the usual case an RTCP BYE packet will be
received from the original source to delete the state without having
to wait for a timeout.

When a new SSRC identifier is chosen due to a collision, the
candidate identifier should first be looked up in the source
identifier table to see if it was already in use by some other
source. If so, another candidate should be generated and the process
repeated.

A loop of data packets to a multicast destination can cause severe
network flooding. All mixers and translators are required to
implement a loop detection algorithm like the one here so that they
can break loops. This should limit the excess traffic to no more than
one duplicate copy of the original traffic, which may allow the
session to continue so that the cause of the loop can be found and
fixed. However, in extreme cases where a mixer or translator does not
properly break the loop and high traffic levels result, it may be
necessary for end systems to cease transmitting data or control
packets entirely. This decision may depend upon the application. An
error condition should be indicated as appropriate. Transmission

might be attempted again periodically after a long, random time (on the order of minutes).

Schulzrinne, et al
□
RFC 1889

Standards Track
RTP

[Page 48]
January 1996

9. Security

Lower layer protocols may eventually provide all the security services that may be desired for applications of RTP, including authentication, integrity, and confidentiality. These services have recently been specified for IP. Since the need for a confidentiality service is well established in the initial audio and video applications that are expected to use RTP, a confidentiality service is defined in the next section for use with RTP and RTCP until lower layer services are available. The overhead on the protocol for this service is low, so the penalty will be minimal if this service is obsoleted by lower layer services in the future.

Alternatively, other services, other implementations of services and other algorithms may be defined for RTP in the future if warranted. The selection presented here is meant to simplify implementation of interoperable, secure applications and provide guidance to implementors. No claim is made that the methods presented here are appropriate for a particular security need. A profile may specify which services and algorithms should be offered by applications, and may provide guidance as to their appropriate use.

Key distribution and certificates are outside the scope of this document.

9.1 Confidentiality

Confidentiality means that only the intended receiver(s) can decode the received packets; for others, the packet contains no useful information. Confidentiality of the content is achieved by encryption.

When encryption of RTP or RTCP is desired, all the octets that will be encapsulated for transmission in a single lower-layer packet are encrypted as a unit. For RTCP, a 32-bit random number is prepended to the unit before encryption to deter known plaintext attacks. For RTP, no prefix is required because the sequence number and timestamp fields are initialized with random offsets.

For RTCP, it is allowed to split a compound RTCP packet into two lower-layer packets, one to be encrypted and one to be sent in the clear. For example, SDES information might be encrypted while reception reports were sent in the clear to accommodate third-party monitors that are not privy to the encryption key. In this example, depicted in Fig. 4, the SDES information must be appended to an RR packet with no reports (and the encrypted) to satisfy the requirement that all compound RTCP packets begin with an SR or RR packet.

Schulzrinne, et al
□

Standards Track

[Page 49]

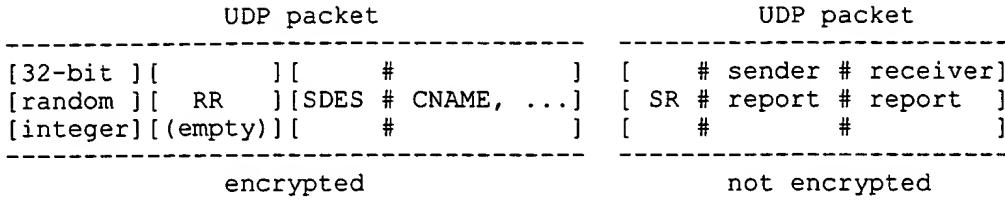


Figure 4: Encrypted and non-encrypted RTCP packets

The presence of encryption and the use of the correct key are confirmed by the receiver through header or payload validity checks. Examples of such validity checks for RTP and RTCP headers are given in Appendices A.1 and A.2.

The default encryption algorithm is the Data Encryption Standard (DES) algorithm in cipher block chaining (CBC) mode, as described in Section 1.1 of RFC 1423 [21], except that padding to a multiple of 8 octets is indicated as described for the P bit in Section 5.1. The initialization vector is zero because random values are supplied in the RTP header or by the random prefix for compound RTCP packets. For details on the use of CBC initialization vectors, see [22]. Implementations that support encryption should always support the DES algorithm in CBC mode as the default to maximize interoperability. This method is chosen because it has been demonstrated to be easy and practical to use in experimental audio and video tools in operation on the Internet. Other encryption algorithms may be specified dynamically for a session by non-RTP means.

As an alternative to encryption at the RTP level as described above, profiles may define additional payload types for encrypted encodings. Those encodings must specify how padding and other aspects of the encryption should be handled. This method allows encrypting only the data while leaving the headers in the clear for applications where that is desired. It may be particularly useful for hardware devices that will handle both decryption and decoding.

9.2 Authentication and Message Integrity

Authentication and message integrity are not defined in the current specification of RTP since these services would not be directly feasible without a key management infrastructure. It is expected that authentication and integrity services will be provided by lower layer protocols in the future.

10. RTP over Network and Transport Protocols

This section describes issues specific to carrying RTP packets within particular network and transport protocols. The following rules apply unless superseded by protocol-specific definitions outside this specification.

RTP relies on the underlying protocol(s) to provide demultiplexing of

RTP data and RTCP control streams. For UDP and similar protocols, RTP uses an even port number and the corresponding RTCP stream uses the next higher (odd) port number. If an application is supplied with an odd number for use as the RTP port, it should replace this number with the next lower (even) number.

RTP data packets contain no length field or other delineation, therefore RTP relies on the underlying protocol(s) to provide a length indication. The maximum length of RTP packets is limited only by the underlying protocols.

If RTP packets are to be carried in an underlying protocol that provides the abstraction of a continuous octet stream rather than messages (packets), an encapsulation of the RTP packets must be defined to provide a framing mechanism. Framing is also needed if the underlying protocol may contain padding so that the extent of the RTP payload cannot be determined. The framing mechanism is not defined here.

A profile may specify a framing method to be used even when RTP is carried in protocols that do provide framing in order to allow carrying several RTP packets in one lower-layer protocol data unit, such as a UDP packet. Carrying several RTP packets in one network or transport packet reduces header overhead and may simplify synchronization between different streams.

11. Summary of Protocol Constants

This section contains a summary listing of the constants defined in this specification.

The RTP payload type (PT) constants are defined in profiles rather than this document. However, the octet of the RTP header which contains the marker bit(s) and payload type must avoid the reserved values 200 and 201 (decimal) to distinguish RTP packets from the RTCP SR and RR packet types for the header validation procedure described in Appendix A.1. For the standard definition of one marker bit and a 7-bit payload type field as shown in this specification, this restriction means that payload types 72 and 73 are reserved.

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 51]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

11.1 RTCP packet types

abbrev.	name	value
SR	sender report	200
RR	receiver report	201
SDES	source description	202
BYE	goodbye	203
APP	application-defined	204

These type values were chosen in the range 200-204 for improved header validity checking of RTCP packets compared to RTP packets or other unrelated packets. When the RTCP packet type field is compared to the corresponding octet of the RTP header, this range corresponds to the marker bit being 1 (which it usually is not in data packets) and to the high bit of the standard payload type field being 1 (since the static payload types are typically defined in the low half). This range was also chosen to be some distance numerically from 0 and 255 since all-zeros and all-ones are common data patterns.

Since all compound RTCP packets must begin with SR or RR, these codes were chosen as an even/odd pair to allow the RTCP validity check to test the maximum number of bits with mask and value.

Other constants are assigned by IANA. Experimenters are encouraged to register the numbers they need for experiments, and then unregister those which prove to be unneeded.

11.2 SDES types

abbrev.	name	value
END	end of SDES list	0
CNAME	canonical name	1
NAME	user name	2
EMAIL	user's electronic mail address	3
PHONE	user's phone number	4
LOC	geographic user location	5
TOOL	name of application or tool	6
NOTE	notice about the source	7
PRIV	private extensions	8

Other constants are assigned by IANA. Experimenters are encouraged to register the numbers they need for experiments, and then unregister those which prove to be unneeded.

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 52]

□
RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

12. RTP Profiles and Payload Format Specifications

A complete specification of RTP for a particular application will require one or more companion documents of two types described here: profiles, and payload format specifications.

RTP may be used for a variety of applications with somewhat differing requirements. The flexibility to adapt to those requirements is provided by allowing multiple choices in the main protocol specification, then selecting the appropriate choices or defining extensions for a particular environment and class of applications in a separate profile document. Typically an application will operate under only one profile so there is no explicit indication of which profile is in use. A profile for audio and video applications may be found in the companion Internet-Draft [draft-ietf-avt-profile](#) for

The second type of companion document is a payload format specification, which defines how a particular kind of payload data, such as H.261 encoded video, should be carried in RTP. These documents are typically titled "RTP Payload Format for XYZ Audio/Video Encoding". Payload formats may be useful under multiple profiles and may therefore be defined independently of any particular profile. The profile documents are then responsible for assigning a default mapping of that format to a payload type value if needed.

Within this specification, the following items have been identified for possible definition within a profile, but this list is not meant to be exhaustive:

RTP data header: The octet in the RTP data header that contains the

marker bit and payload type field may be redefined by a profile to suit different requirements, for example with more or fewer marker bits (Section 5.3).

Payload types: Assuming that a payload type field is included, the profile will usually define a set of payload formats (e.g., media encodings) and a default static mapping of those formats to payload type values. Some of the payload formats may be defined by reference to separate payload format specifications. For each payload type defined, the profile must specify the RTP timestamp clock rate to be used (Section 5.1).

RTP data header additions: Additional fields may be appended to the fixed RTP data header if some additional functionality is required across the profile's class of applications independent of payload type (Section 5.3).

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 53]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

RTP data header extensions: The contents of the first 16 bits of the RTP data header extension structure must be defined if use of that mechanism is to be allowed under the profile for implementation-specific extensions (Section 5.3.1).

RTCP packet types: New application-class-specific RTCP packet types may be defined and registered with IANA.

RTCP report interval: A profile should specify that the values suggested in Section 6.2 for the constants employed in the calculation of the RTCP report interval will be used. Those are the RTCP fraction of session bandwidth, the minimum report interval, and the bandwidth split between senders and receivers. A profile may specify alternate values if they have been demonstrated to work in a scalable manner.

SR/RR extension: An extension section may be defined for the RTCP SR and RR packets if there is additional information that should be reported regularly about the sender or receivers (Section 6.3.3).

SDES use: The profile may specify the relative priorities for RTCP SDES items to be transmitted or excluded entirely (Section 6.2.2); an alternate syntax or semantics for the CNAME item (Section 6.4.1); the format of the LOC item (Section 6.4.5); the semantics and use of the NOTE item (Section 6.4.7); or new SDES item types to be registered with IANA.

Security: A profile may specify which security services and algorithms should be offered by applications, and may provide guidance as to their appropriate use (Section 9).

String-to-key mapping: A profile may specify how a user-provided password or pass phrase is mapped into an encryption key.

Underlying protocol: Use of a particular underlying network or transport layer protocol to carry RTP packets may be required.

Transport mapping: A mapping of RTP and RTCP to transport-level addresses, e.g., UDP ports, other than the standard mapping defined in Section 10 may be specified.

Encapsulation: An encapsulation of RTP packets may be defined to allow multiple RTP data packets to be carried in one lower-layer packet or to provide framing over underlying protocols that do not already do so (Section 10).

Schulzrinne, et al
□
RFC 1889

Standards Track
RTP

[Page 54]
January 1996

It is not expected that a new profile will be required for every application. Within one application class, it would be better to extend an existing profile rather than make a new one in order to facilitate interoperation among the applications since each will typically run under only one profile. Simple extensions such as the definition of additional payload type values or RTCP packet types may be accomplished by registering them through the Internet Assigned Numbers Authority and publishing their descriptions in an addendum to the profile or in a payload format specification.

A. Algorithms

We provide examples of C code for aspects of RTP sender and receiver algorithms. There may be other implementation methods that are faster in particular operating environments or have other advantages. These implementation notes are for informational purposes only and are meant to clarify the RTP specification.

The following definitions are used for all examples; for clarity and brevity, the structure definitions are only valid for 32-bit big-endian (most significant octet first) architectures. Bit fields are assumed to be packed tightly in big-endian bit order, with no additional padding. Modifications would be required to construct a portable implementation.

```
/*
 * rtp.h -- RTP header file (RFC XXXX)
 */
#include <sys/types.h>

/*
 * The type definitions below are valid for 32-bit architectures and
 * may have to be adjusted for 16- or 64-bit architectures.
 */
typedef unsigned char  u_int8;
typedef unsigned short u_int16;
typedef unsigned int   u_int32;
typedef           short int16;

/*
 * Current protocol version.
 */
#define RTP_VERSION      2

#define RTP_SEQ_MOD (1<<16)
#define RTP_MAX_SDES 255      /* maximum text length for SDES */

typedef enum {
    RTCP_SR      = 200,
    RTCP_RR      = 201,
    RTCP_SDES    = 202,
    RTCP_BYE     = 203,
    RTCP_APP     = 204
} rtcp_type_t;

typedef enum {
    RTCP_SDES_END    = 0,
    RTCP_SDES_CNAME = 1,
```

```
RTCP_SDES_NAME    = 2,
RTCP_SDES_EMAIL   = 3,
RTCP_SDES_PHONE   = 4,
RTCP_SDES_LOC     = 5,
RTCP_SDES_TOOL    = 6,
RTCP_SDES_NOTE    = 7,
RTCP_SDES_PRIV    = 8
```

```

} rtcp_sdes_type_t;

/*
 * RTP data header
 */
typedef struct {
    unsigned int version:2;      /* protocol version */
    unsigned int p:1;           /* padding flag */
    unsigned int x:1;           /* header extension flag */
    unsigned int cc:4;          /* CSRC count */
    unsigned int m:1;           /* marker bit */
    unsigned int pt:7;          /* payload type */
    u_int16 seq;               /* sequence number */
    u_int32 ts;                /* timestamp */
    u_int32 ssrc;              /* synchronization source */
    u_int32 csrc[1];           /* optional CSRC list */
} rtp_hdr_t;

/*
 * RTCP common header word
 */
typedef struct {
    unsigned int version:2;      /* protocol version */
    unsigned int p:1;           /* padding flag */
    unsigned int count:5;        /* varies by packet type */
    unsigned int pt:8;          /* RTCP packet type */
    u_int16 length;             /* pkt len in words, w/o this word */
} rtcp_common_t;

/*
 * Big-endian mask for version, padding bit and packet type pair
 */
#define RTCP_VALID_MASK (0xc000 | 0x2000 | 0xfe)
#define RTCP_VALID_VALUE ((RTP_VERSION << 14) | RTCP_SR)

/*
 * Reception report block
 */
typedef struct {
    u_int32 ssrc;               /* data source being reported */
    unsigned int fraction:8;    /* fraction lost since last SR/RR */
    int lost:24;                /* cumul. no. pkts lost (signed!) */
    u_int32 last_seq;           /* extended last seq. no. received */
    u_int32 jitter;             /* interarrival jitter */
    u_int32 lsr;                /* last SR packet from this source */
    u_int32 dlsr;               /* delay since last SR packet */
} rtcp_rr_t;

/*
 * SDES item
 */
typedef struct {
    u_int8 type;                /* type of item (rtcp_sdes_type_t) */
    u_int8 length;               /* length of item (in octets) */
    char data[1];                /* text, not null-terminated */
} rtcp_sdes_item_t;

/*
 * One RTCP packet

```

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 57]

□
RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

```

    int lost:24;                /* cumul. no. pkts lost (signed!) */
    u_int32 last_seq;           /* extended last seq. no. received */
    u_int32 jitter;             /* interarrival jitter */
    u_int32 lsr;                /* last SR packet from this source */
    u_int32 dlsr;               /* delay since last SR packet */
} rtcp_rr_t;

/*
 * SDES item
 */
typedef struct {
    u_int8 type;                /* type of item (rtcp_sdes_type_t) */
    u_int8 length;               /* length of item (in octets) */
    char data[1];                /* text, not null-terminated */
} rtcp_sdes_item_t;

/*
 * One RTCP packet

```

```

/*
typedef struct {
    rtcp_common_t common;      /* common header */
    union {
        /* sender report (SR) */
        struct {
            u_int32 ssrc;        /* sender generating this report */
            u_int32 ntp_sec;    /* NTP timestamp */
            u_int32 ntp_frac;
            u_int32 rtp_ts;     /* RTP timestamp */
            u_int32 psent;      /* packets sent */
            u_int32 osent;      /* octets sent */
            rtcp_rr_t rr[1];   /* variable-length list */
        } sr;
        /* reception report (RR) */
        struct {
            u_int32 ssrc;        /* receiver generating this report */
            rtcp_rr_t rr[1];   /* variable-length list */
        } rr;
        /* source description (SDES) */
        struct rtcp_sdes {
            u_int32 src;         /* first SSRC/CSRC */
            rtcp_sdes_item_t item[1]; /* list of SDES items */
        } sdes;
        /* BYE */
        struct {
            u_int32 src[1];     /* list of sources */
        }
    }
} rtcp_t;

```

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 58]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

```

        /* can't express trailing text for reason */
    } bye;
} r;
} rtcp_t;

typedef struct rtcp_sdes rtcp_sdes_t;

/*
 * Per-source state information
 */
typedef struct {
    u_int16 max_seq;        /* highest seq. number seen */
    u_int32 cycles;         /* shifted count of seq. number cycles */
    u_int32 base_seq;       /* base seq number */
    u_int32 bad_seq;        /* last 'bad' seq number + 1 */
    u_int32 probation;      /* sequ. packets till source is valid */
    u_int32 received;        /* packets received */
    u_int32 expected_prior; /* packet expected at last interval */
    u_int32 received_prior; /* packet received at last interval */
    u_int32 transit;         /* relative trans time for prev pkt */
    u_int32 jitter;          /* estimated jitter */
    /* ... */
} source;

```

A.1 RTP Data Header Validity Checks

An RTP receiver should check the validity of the RTP header on incoming packets since they might be encrypted or might be from a different application that happens to be misaddressed. Similarly, if

encryption is enabled, the header validity check is needed to verify that incoming packets have been correctly decrypted, although a failure of the header validity check (e.g., unknown payload type) may not necessarily indicate decryption failure.

Only weak validity checks are possible on an RTP data packet from a source that has not been heard before:

- o RTP version field must equal 2.
- o The payload type must be known, in particular it must not be equal to SR or RR.
- o If the P bit is set, then the last octet of the packet must contain a valid octet count, in particular, less than the total packet length minus the header size.
- o The X bit must be zero if the profile does not specify that the header extension mechanism may be used. Otherwise, the

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 59]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

extension length field must be less than the total packet size minus the fixed header length and padding.

- o The length of the packet must be consistent with CC and payload type (if payloads have a known length).

The last three checks are somewhat complex and not always possible, leaving only the first two which total just a few bits. If the SSRC identifier in the packet is one that has been received before, then the packet is probably valid and checking if the sequence number is in the expected range provides further validation. If the SSRC identifier has not been seen before, then data packets carrying that identifier may be considered invalid until a small number of them arrive with consecutive sequence numbers.

The routine `update_seq` shown below ensures that a source is declared valid only after `MIN_SEQUENTIAL` packets have been received in sequence. It also validates the sequence number `seq` of a newly received packet and updates the sequence state for the packet's source in the structure to which `s` points.

When a new source is heard for the first time, that is, its SSRC identifier is not in the table (see Section 8.2), and the per-source state is allocated for it, `s->probation` should be set to the number of sequential packets required before declaring a source valid (parameter `MIN_SEQUENTIAL`) and `s->max_seq` initialized to `seq-1` `s->probation` marks the source as not yet valid so the state may be discarded after a short timeout rather than a long one, as discussed in Section 6.2.1.

After a source is considered valid, the sequence number is considered valid if it is no more than `MAX_DROPOUT` ahead of `s->max_seq` nor more than `MAX_MISORDER` behind. If the new sequence number is ahead of `max_seq` modulo the RTP sequence number range (16 bits), but is smaller than `max_seq`, it has wrapped around and the (shifted) count of sequence number cycles is incremented. A value of one is returned to indicate a valid sequence number.

Otherwise, the value zero is returned to indicate that the validation failed, and the bad sequence number is stored. If the next packet

received carries the next higher sequence number, it is considered the valid start of a new packet sequence presumably caused by an extended dropout or a source restart. Since multiple complete sequence number cycles may have been missed, the packet loss statistics are reset.

Typical values for the parameters are shown, based on a maximum misordering time of 2 seconds at 50 packets/second and a maximum

Schulzrinne, et al
□
RFC 1889

Standards Track
RTP

[Page 60]
January 1996

dropout of 1 minute. The dropout parameter MAX_DROPOUT should be a small fraction of the 16-bit sequence number space to give a reasonable probability that new sequence numbers after a restart will not fall in the acceptable range for sequence numbers from before the restart.

```
void init_seq(source *s, u_int16 seq)
{
    s->base_seq = seq - 1;
    s->max_seq = seq;
    s->bad_seq = RTP_SEQ_MOD + 1;
    s->cycles = 0;
    s->received = 0;
    s->received_prior = 0;
    s->expected_prior = 0;
    /* other initialization */
}

int update_seq(source *s, u_int16 seq)
{
    u_int16 udelta = seq - s->max_seq;
    const int MAX_DROPOUT = 3000;
    const int MAX_MISORDER = 100;
    const int MIN_SEQUENTIAL = 2;

    /*
     * Source is not valid until MIN_SEQUENTIAL packets with
     * sequential sequence numbers have been received.
     */
    if (s->probation) {
        /* packet is in sequence */
        if (seq == s->max_seq + 1) {
            s->probation--;
            s->max_seq = seq;
            if (s->probation == 0) {
                init_seq(s, seq);
                s->received++;
                return 1;
            }
        } else {
            s->probation = MIN_SEQUENTIAL - 1;
            s->max_seq = seq;
        }
        return 0;
    } else if (udelta < MAX_DROPOUT) {
        /* in order, with permissible gap */
        if (seq < s->max_seq) {
            /*

```

```

        * Sequence number wrapped - count another 64K cycle.
        */
        s->cycles += RTP_SEQ_MOD;
    }
    s->max_seq = seq;
} else if (udelta <= RTP_SEQ_MOD - MAX_MISORDER) {
    /* the sequence number made a very large jump */
    if (seq == s->bad_seq) {
        /*
         * Two sequential packets -- assume that the other side
         * restarted without telling us so just re-sync
         * (i.e., pretend this was the first packet).
        */
        init_seq(s, seq);
    }
    else {
        s->bad_seq = (seq + 1) & (RTP_SEQ_MOD-1);
        return 0;
    }
} else {
    /* duplicate or reordered packet */
}
s->received++;
return 1;
}

```

The validity check can be made stronger requiring more than two packets in sequence. The disadvantages are that a larger number of initial packets will be discarded and that high packet loss rates could prevent validation. However, because the RTCP header validation is relatively strong, if an RTCP packet is received from a source before the data packets, the count could be adjusted so that only two packets are required in sequence. If initial data loss for a few seconds can be tolerated, an application could choose to discard all data packets from a source until a valid RTCP packet has been received from that source.

Depending on the application and encoding, algorithms may exploit additional knowledge about the payload format for further validation. For payload types where the timestamp increment is the same for all packets, the timestamp values can be predicted from the previous packet received from the same source using the sequence number difference (assuming no change in payload type).

A strong "fast-path" check is possible since with high probability the first four octets in the header of a newly received RTP data packet will be just the same as that of the previous packet from the same SSRC except that the sequence number will have increased by one.

Similarly, a single-entry cache may be used for faster SSRC lookups in applications where data is typically received from one source at a time.

The following checks can be applied to RTCP packets.

- o RTP version field must equal 2.
- o The payload type field of the first RTCP packet in a compound packet must be equal to SR or RR.
- o The padding bit (P) should be zero for the first packet of a compound RTCP packet because only the last should possibly need padding.
- o The length fields of the individual RTCP packets must total to the overall length of the compound RTCP packet as received.
This is a fairly strong check.

The code fragment below performs all of these checks. The packet type is not checked for subsequent packets since unknown packet types may be present and should be ignored.

```
u_int32 len;           /* length of compound RTCP packet in words */
rtcp_t *r;             /* RTCP header */
rtcp_t *end;           /* end of compound RTCP packet */

if ((*u_int16 *)r & RTCP_VALID_MASK) != RTCP_VALID_VALUE) {
    /* something wrong with packet format */
}
end = (rtcp_t *)((u_int32 *)r + len);

do r = (rtcp_t *)((u_int32 *)r + r->common.length + 1);
while (r < end && r->common.version == 2);

if (r != end) {
    /* something wrong with packet format */
}
```

A.3 Determining the Number of RTP Packets Expected and Lost

In order to compute packet loss rates, the number of packets expected and actually received from each source needs to be known, using per-source state information defined in struct source referenced via pointer s in the code below. The number of packets received is simply the count of packets as they arrive, including any late or duplicate

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 63]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

packets. The number of packets expected can be computed by the receiver as the difference between the highest sequence number received (s->max_seq) and the first sequence number received (s->base_seq). Since the sequence number is only 16 bits and will wrap around, it is necessary to extend the highest sequence number with the (shifted) count of sequence number wraparounds (s->cycles). Both the received packet count and the count of cycles are maintained the RTP header validity check routine in Appendix A.1.

```
extended_max = s->cycles + s->max_seq;
expected = extended_max - s->base_seq + 1;
```

The number of packets lost is defined to be the number of packets expected less the number of packets actually received:

```
lost = expected - s->received;
```

Since this number is carried in 24 bits, it should be clamped at 0xfffff rather than wrap around to zero.

The fraction of packets lost during the last reporting interval (since the previous SR or RR packet was sent) is calculated from differences in the expected and received packet counts across the interval, where `expected_prior` and `received_prior` are the values saved when the previous reception report was generated:

```
expected_interval = expected - s->expected_prior;
s->expected_prior = expected;
received_interval = s->received - s->received_prior;
s->received_prior = s->received;
lost_interval = expected_interval - received_interval;
if (expected_interval == 0 || lost_interval <= 0) fraction = 0;
else fraction = (lost_interval << 8) / expected_interval;
```

The resulting fraction is an 8-bit fixed point number with the binary point at the left edge.

A.4 Generating SDES RTCP Packets

This function builds one SDES chunk into buffer `b` composed of `argc` items supplied in arrays `type`, `value` and `length`

```
char *rtp_write_sdes(char *b, u_int32 src, int argc,
                      rtcp_sdes_type_t type[], char *value[],
                      int length[])
{
    rtcp_sdes_t *s = (rtcp_sdes_t *)b;
    rtcp_sdes_item_t *rsp;
```

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 64]

□
RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

```
int i;
int len;
int pad;

/* SSRC header */
s->src = src;
rsp = &s->item[0];

/* SDES items */
for (i = 0; i < argc; i++) {
    rsp->type = type[i];
    len = length[i];
    if (len > RTP_MAX_SDES) {
        /* invalid length, may want to take other action */
        len = RTP_MAX_SDES;
    }
    rsp->length = len;
    memcpy(rsp->data, value[i], len);
    rsp = (rtcp_sdes_item_t *)&rsp->data[len];
}

/* terminate with end marker and pad to next 4-octet boundary */
len = ((char *) rsp) - b;
pad = 4 - (len & 0x3);
b = (char *) rsp;
while (pad--) *b++ = RTCP_SDES_END;

return b;
```

```
}
```

A.5 Parsing RTCP SDES Packets

This function parses an SDES packet, calling functions `find_member()` to find a pointer to the information for a session member given the SSRC identifier and `member_sdes()` to store the new SDES information for that member. This function expects a pointer to the header of the RTCP packet.

```
void rtp_read_sdes(rtcp_t *r)
{
    int count = r->common.count;
    rtcp_sdes_t *sd = &r->r.sdes;
    rtcp_sdes_item_t *rsp, *rspn;
    rtcp_sdes_item_t *end = (rtcp_sdes_item_t *)
                           ((u_int32 *)r + r->common.length + 1);
    source *s;

    while (--count >= 0) {
```

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 65]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

```
        rsp = &sd->item[0];
        if (rsp >= end) break;
        s = find_member(sd->src);

        for ( ; rsp->type; rsp = rspn ) {
            rspn = (rtcp_sdes_item_t *)((char*)rsp+rsp->length+2);
            if (rspn >= end) {
                rsp = rspn;
                break;
            }
            member_sdes(s, rsp->type, rsp->data, rsp->length);
        }
        sd = (rtcp_sdes_t *)
              ((u_int32 *)sd + (((char *)rsp - (char *)sd) >> 2)+1);
    }
    if (count >= 0) {
        /* invalid packet format */
    }
}
```

A.6 Generating a Random 32-bit Identifier

The following subroutine generates a random 32-bit identifier using the MD5 routines published in RFC 1321 [23]. The system routines may not be present on all operating systems, but they should serve as hints as to what kinds of information may be used. Other system calls that may be appropriate include

- o `getdomainname()` ,
- o `getwd()` , or
- o `getrusage()`

"Live" video or audio samples are also a good source of random numbers, but care must be taken to avoid using a turned-off microphone or blinded camera as a source [7].

Use of this or similar routine is suggested to generate the initial

seed for the random number generator producing the RTCP period (as shown in Appendix A.7), to generate the initial values for the sequence number and timestamp, and to generate SSRC values. Since this routine is likely to be CPU-intensive, its direct use to generate RTCP periods is inappropriate because predictability is not an issue. Note that this routine produces the same result on repeated calls until the value of the system clock changes unless different values are supplied for the type argument.

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 66]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

```
/*
 * Generate a random 32-bit quantity.
 */
#include <sys/types.h>      /* u_long */
#include <sys/time.h>        /* gettimeofday() */
#include <unistd.h>          /* get..() */
#include <stdio.h>            /* printf() */
#include <time.h>             /* clock() */
#include <sys/utsname.h>      /* uname() */
#include "global.h"           /* from RFC 1321 */
#include "md5.h"              /* from RFC 1321 */

#define MD_CTX MD5_CTX
#define MDInit MD5Init
#define MDUpdate MD5Update
#define MDFinal MD5Final

static u_long md_32(char *string, int length)
{
    MD_CTX context;
    union {
        char   c[16];
        u_long x[4];
    } digest;
    u_long r;
    int i;

    MDInit (&context);
    MDUpdate (&context, string, length);
    MDFinal ((unsigned char *)&digest, &context);
    r = 0;
    for (i = 0; i < 3; i++) {
        r ^= digest.x[i];
    }
    return r;
}                                         /* md_32 */

/*
 * Return random unsigned 32-bit quantity. Use 'type' argument if you
 * need to generate several different values in close succession.
 */
u_int32 random32(int type)
{
    struct {
        int      type;
        struct  timeval tv;
        clock_t  cpu;
    }
```

```
    pid_t    pid;
    u_long   hid;
    uid_t    uid;
    gid_t    gid;
    struct   utsname name;
} s;

gettimeofday(&s.tv, 0);
uname(&s.name);
s.type = type;
s.cpu = clock();
s.pid = getpid();
s.hid = gethostid();
s.uid = getuid();
s.gid = getgid();

return md_32((char *)&s, sizeof(s));
} /* random32 */
```

A.7 Computing the RTCP Transmission Interval

The following function returns the time between transmissions of RTCP packets, measured in seconds. It should be called after sending one compound RTCP packet to calculate the delay until the next should be sent. This function should also be called to calculate the delay before sending the first RTCP packet upon startup rather than send the packet immediately. This avoids any burst of RTCP packets if an application is started at many sites simultaneously, for example as a result of a session announcement.

The parameters have the following meaning:

rtcp_bw: The target RTCP bandwidth, i.e., the total bandwidth that will be used for RTCP packets by all members of this session, in octets per second. This should be 5% of the "session bandwidth" parameter supplied to the application at startup.

senders: Number of active senders since sending last report, known from construction of receiver reports for this RTCP packet. Includes ourselves, if we also sent during this interval.

members: The estimated number of session members, including ourselves. Incremented as we discover new session members from the receipt of RTP or RTCP packets, and decremented as session members leave (via RTCP BYE) or their state is timed out (30 minutes is recommended). On the first call, this parameter should have the value 1.

we_sent: Flag that is true if we have sent data during the last two RTCP intervals. If the flag is true, the compound RTCP packet just sent contained an SR packet.

packet_size: The size of the compound RTCP packet just sent, in

octets, including the network encapsulation (e.g., 28 octets for UDP over IP).

avg_rtcp_size: Pointer to estimator for compound RTCP packet size; initialized and updated by this function for the packet just sent, and also updated by an identical line of code in the RTCP receive routine for every RTCP packet received from other participants in the session.

initial: Flag that is true for the first call upon startup to calculate the time until the first report should be sent.

```
#include <math.h>
```

```
double rtcp_interval(int members,
                     int senders,
                     double rtcp_bw,
                     int we_sent,
                     int packet_size,
                     int *avg_rtcp_size,
                     int initial)

{
    /*
     * Minimum time between RTCP packets from this site (in seconds).
     * This time prevents the reports from 'clumping' when sessions
     * are small and the law of large numbers isn't helping to smooth
     * out the traffic. It also keeps the report interval from
     * becoming ridiculously small during transient outages like a
     * network partition.
     */
    double const RTCP_MIN_TIME = 5.;

    /*
     * Fraction of the RTCP bandwidth to be shared among active
     * senders. (This fraction was chosen so that in a typical
     * session with one or two active senders, the computed report
     * time would be roughly equal to the minimum report time so that
     * we don't unnecessarily slow down receiver reports.) The
     * receiver fraction must be 1 - the sender fraction.
     */
    double const RTCP_SENDER_BW_FRACTION = 0.25;
    double const RTCP_RCVR_BW_FRACTION = (1-RTCP_SENDER_BW_FRACTION);
    /*
     * Gain (smoothing constant) for the low-pass filter that
```

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 69]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

```
    * estimates the average RTCP packet size (see Cadzow reference).
    */
    double const RTCP_SIZE_GAIN = (1./16.);

    double t;                      /* interval */
    double rtcp_min_time = RTCP_MIN_TIME;
    int n;                         /* no. of members for computation */

    /*
     * Very first call at application start-up uses half the min
     * delay for quicker notification while still allowing some time
     * before reporting for randomization and to learn about other
     * sources so the report interval will converge to the correct
     * interval more quickly. The average RTCP size is initialized
     * to 128 octets which is conservative (it assumes everyone else
     * is generating SRs instead of RR: 20 IP + 8 UDP + 52 SR + 48
```

```

        * SDES CNAME).
    */
if (initial) {
    rtcp_min_time /= 2;
    *avg_rtcp_size = 128;
}

/*
 * If there were active senders, give them at least a minimum
 * share of the RTCP bandwidth. Otherwise all participants share
 * the RTCP bandwidth equally.
*/
n = members;
if (senders > 0 && senders < members * RTCP_SENDER_BW_FRACTION) {
    if (we_sent) {
        rtcp_bw *= RTCP_SENDER_BW_FRACTION;
        n = senders;
    } else {
        rtcp_bw *= RTCP_RCVR_BW_FRACTION;
        n -= senders;
    }
}

/*
 * Update the average size estimate by the size of the report
 * packet we just sent.
*/
*avg_rtcp_size += (packet_size - *avg_rtcp_size)*RTCP_SIZE_GAIN;

/*
 * The effective number of sites times the average packet size is
 * the total number of octets sent when each site sends a report.

```

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 70]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

```

        * Dividing this by the effective bandwidth gives the time
        * interval over which those packets must be sent in order to
        * meet the bandwidth target, with a minimum enforced. In that
        * time interval we send one report so this time is also our
        * average time between reports.
    */
t = (*avg_rtcp_size) * n / rtcp_bw;
if (t < rtcp_min_time) t = rtcp_min_time;

/*
 * To avoid traffic bursts from unintended synchronization with
 * other sites, we then pick our actual next report interval as a
 * random number uniformly distributed between 0.5*t and 1.5*t.
 */
return t * (drand48() + 0.5);
}

```

A.8 Estimating the Interarrival Jitter

The code fragments below implement the algorithm given in Section 6.3.1 for calculating an estimate of the statistical variance of the RTP data interarrival time to be inserted in the interarrival jitter field of reception reports. The inputs are *r->ts*, the timestamp from the incoming packet, and *arrival*, the current time in the same units. Here *s* points to state for the source; *s->transit* holds the relative transit time for the previous packet, and *s->jitter* holds the estimated jitter. The jitter field of the reception report is

measured in timestamp units and expressed as an unsigned integer, but the jitter estimate is kept in a floating point. As each data packet arrives, the jitter estimate is updated:

```
int transit = arrival - r->ts;
int d = transit - s->transit;
s->transit = transit;
if (d < 0) d = -d;
s->jitter += (1./16.) * ((double)d - s->jitter);
```

When a reception report block (to which rr points) is generated for this member, the current jitter estimate is returned:

```
rr->jitter = (u_int32) s->jitter;
```

Alternatively, the jitter estimate can be kept as an integer, but scaled to reduce round-off error. The calculation is the same except for the last line:

```
s->jitter += d - ((s->jitter + 8) >> 4);
```

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 71]

□

RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

In this case, the estimate is sampled for the reception report as:

```
rr->jitter = s->jitter >> 4;
```

B. Security Considerations

RTP suffers from the same security liabilities as the underlying protocols. For example, an impostor can fake source or destination network addresses, or change the header or payload. Within RTCP, the CNAME and NAME information may be used to impersonate another participant. In addition, RTP may be sent via IP multicast, which provides no direct means for a sender to know all the receivers of the data sent and therefore no measure of privacy. Rightly or not, users may be more sensitive to privacy concerns with audio and video communication than they have been with more traditional forms of network communication [24]. Therefore, the use of security mechanisms with RTP is important. These mechanisms are discussed in Section 9.

RTP-level translators or mixers may be used to allow RTP traffic to reach hosts behind firewalls. Appropriate firewall security principles and practices, which are beyond the scope of this document, should be followed in the design and installation of these devices and in the admission of RTP applications for use behind the firewall.

C. Authors' Addresses

Henning Schulzrinne
GMD Fokus
Hardenbergplatz 2
D-10623 Berlin
Germany

EMail: schulzrinne@fokus.gmd.de

Stephen L. Casner

Precept Software, Inc.
21580 Stevens Creek Boulevard, Suite 207
Cupertino, CA 95014
United States

EMail: casner@precept.com

Schulzrinne, et al

Standards Track

[Page 72]

□
RFC 1889

RTP

January 1996

Ron Frederick
Xerox Palo Alto Research Center
3333 Coyote Hill Road
Palo Alto, CA 94304
United States

EMail: frederic@parc.xerox.com

Van Jacobson
MS 46a-1121
Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory
Berkeley, CA 94720
United States

EMail: van@ee.lbl.gov

Acknowledgments

This memorandum is based on discussions within the IETF Audio/Video Transport working group chaired by Stephen Casner. The current protocol has its origins in the Network Voice Protocol and the Packet Video Protocol (Danny Cohen and Randy Cole) and the protocol implemented by the vat application (Van Jacobson and Steve McCanne). Christian Huitema provided ideas for the random identifier generator.

D. Bibliography

- [1] D. D. Clark and D. L. Tennenhouse, "Architectural considerations for a new generation of protocols," in SIGCOMM Symposium on Communications Architectures and Protocols , (Philadelphia, Pennsylvania), pp. 200--208, IEEE, Sept. 1990. Computer Communications Review, Vol. 20(4), Sept. 1990.
- [2] H. Schulzrinne, "Issues in designing a transport protocol for audio and video conferences and other multiparicipant real-time applications", Work in Progress.
- [3] D. E. Comer, Internetworking with TCP/IP , vol. 1. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1991.
- [4] Postel, J., "Internet Protocol", STD 5, RFC 791, USC/Information Sciences Institute, September 1981.
- [5] Mills, D., "Network Time Protocol Version 3", RFC 1305, UDEL, March 1992.

- [6] Reynolds, J., and J. Postel, "Assigned Numbers", STD 2, RFC 1700, USC/Information Sciences Institute, October 1994.
- [7] Eastlake, D., Crocker, S., and J. Schiller, "Randomness Recommendations for Security", RFC 1750, DEC, Cyberspace, MIT, December 1994.
- [8] J.-C. Bolot, T. Turletti, and I. Wakeman, "Scalable feedback control for multicast video distribution in the internet," in SIGCOMM Symposium on Communications Architectures and Protocols , (London, England), pp. 58--67, ACM, Aug. 1994.
- [9] I. Busse, B. Deffner, and H. Schulzrinne, "Dynamic QoS control of multimedia applications based on RTP," Computer Communications , Jan. 1996.
- [10] S. Floyd and V. Jacobson, "The synchronization of periodic routing messages," in SIGCOMM Symposium on Communications Architectures and Protocols (D. P. Sidhu, ed.), (San Francisco, California), pp. 33--44, ACM, Sept. 1993. also in [25].
- [11] J. A. Cadzow, Foundations of digital signal processing and data analysis New York, New York: Macmillan, 1987.
- [12] International Standards Organization, "ISO/IEC DIS 10646-1:1993 information technology -- universal multiple-octet coded character set (UCS) -- part I: Architecture and basic multilingual plane," 1993.
- [13] The Unicode Consortium, The Unicode Standard New York, New York: Addison-Wesley, 1991.
- [14] Mockapetris, P., "Domain Names - Concepts and Facilities", STD 13, RFC 1034, USC/Information Sciences Institute, November 1987.
- [15] Mockapetris, P., "Domain Names - Implementation and Specification", STD 13, RFC 1035, USC/Information Sciences Institute, November 1987.
- [16] Braden, R., "Requirements for Internet Hosts - Application and Support", STD 3, RFC 1123, Internet Engineering Task Force, October 1989.
- [17] Rekhter, Y., Moskowitz, R., Karrenberg, D., and G. de Groot, "Address Allocation for Private Internets", RFC 1597, T.J. Watson Research Center, IBM Corp., Chrysler Corp., RIPE NCC, March 1994.

- [18] Lear, E., Fair, E., Crocker, D., and T. Kessler, "Network 10 Considered Harmful (Some Practices Shouldn't be Codified)", RFC 1627, Silicon Graphics, Inc., Apple Computer, Inc., Silicon Graphics, Inc., July 1994.

- [19] Crocker, D., "Standard for the Format of ARPA Internet Text Messages", STD 11, RFC 822, UDEL, August 1982.
- [20] W. Feller, An Introduction to Probability Theory and its Applications, Volume 1 , vol. 1. New York, New York: John Wiley and Sons, third ed., 1968.
- [21] Balenson, D., "Privacy Enhancement for Internet Electronic Mail: Part III: Algorithms, Modes, and Identifiers", RFC 1423, TIS, IAB IRTF PSRG, IETF PEM WG, February 1993.
- [22] V. L. Voydock and S. T. Kent, "Security mechanisms in high-level network protocols," ACM Computing Surveys , vol. 15, pp. 135--171, June 1983.
- [23] Rivest, R., "The MD5 Message-Digest Algorithm", RFC 1321, MIT Laboratory for Computer Science and RSA Data Security, Inc., April 1992.
- [24] S. Stubblebine, "Security services for multimedia conferencing," in 16th National Computer Security Conference , (Baltimore, Maryland), pp. 391--395, Sept. 1993.
- [25] S. Floyd and V. Jacobson, "The synchronization of periodic routing messages," IEEE/ACM Transactions on Networking , vol. 2, pp. 122-136, April 1994.

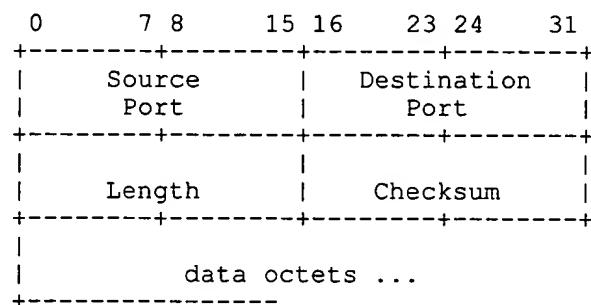
User Datagram Protocol

Introduction

This User Datagram Protocol (UDP) is defined to make available a datagram mode of packet-switched computer communication in the environment of an interconnected set of computer networks. This protocol assumes that the Internet Protocol (IP) [1] is used as the underlying protocol.

This protocol provides a procedure for application programs to send messages to other programs with a minimum of protocol mechanism. The protocol is transaction oriented, and delivery and duplicate protection are not guaranteed. Applications requiring ordered reliable delivery of streams of data should use the Transmission Control Protocol (TCP) [2].

Format



User Datagram Header Format

Fields

Source Port is an optional field, when meaningful, it indicates the port of the sending process, and may be assumed to be the port to which a reply should be addressed in the absence of any other information. If not used, a value of zero is inserted.

Postel
□

[page 1]

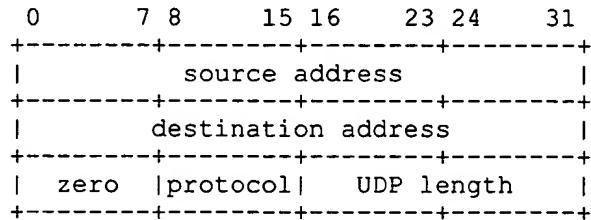
28 Aug 1980
RFC 768User Datagram Protocol
Fields

Destination Port has a meaning within the context of a particular internet destination address.

Length is the length in octets of this user datagram including this header and the data. (This means the minimum value of the length is eight.)

Checksum is the 16-bit one's complement of the one's complement sum of a pseudo header of information from the IP header, the UDP header, and the data, padded with zero octets at the end (if necessary) to make a multiple of two octets.

The pseudo header conceptually prefixed to the UDP header contains the source address, the destination address, the protocol, and the UDP length. This information gives protection against misrouted datagrams. This checksum procedure is the same as is used in TCP.



If the computed checksum is zero, it is transmitted as all ones (the equivalent in one's complement arithmetic). An all zero transmitted checksum value means that the transmitter generated no checksum (for debugging or for higher level protocols that don't care).

User Interface

A user interface should allow

the creation of new receive ports,

receive operations on the receive ports that return the data octets and an indication of source port and source address,

and an operation that allows a datagram to be sent, specifying the data, source and destination ports and addresses to be sent.

[page 2]

□

Postel

28 Aug 1980
RFC 768

User Datagram Protocol
IP Interface

IP Interface

The UDP module must be able to determine the source and destination internet addresses and the protocol field from the internet header. One possible UDP/IP interface would return the whole internet datagram including all of the internet header in response to a receive operation. Such an interface would also allow the UDP to pass a full internet datagram complete with header to the IP to send. The IP would verify certain fields for consistency and compute the internet header checksum.

Protocol Application

The major uses of this protocol is the Internet Name Server [3], and the Trivial File Transfer [4].

Protocol Number

This is protocol 17 (21 octal) when used in the Internet Protocol. Other protocol numbers are listed in [5].

References

- [1] Postel, J., "Internet Protocol," RFC 760, USC/Information Sciences Institute, January 1980.
- [2] Postel, J., "Transmission Control Protocol," RFC 761, USC/Information Sciences Institute, January 1980.
- [3] Postel, J., "Internet Name Server," USC/Information Sciences Institute, IEN 116, August 1979.
- [4] Sollins, K., "The TFTP Protocol," Massachusetts Institute of Technology, IEN 133, January 1980.
- [5] Postel, J., "Assigned Numbers," USC/Information Sciences Institute, RFC 762, January 1980.

Postel

□

[page 3]

INTERNET PROTOCOL

DARPA INTERNET PROGRAM
PROTOCOL SPECIFICATION

September 1981

prepared for

Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency
Information Processing Techniques Office
1400 Wilson Boulevard
Arlington, Virginia 22209

by

Information Sciences Institute
University of Southern California
4676 Admiralty Way
Marina del Rey, California 90291

□
□

September 1981

Internet Protocol

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PREFACE	iii
1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Motivation	1

1.2 Scope	1
1.3 Interfaces	1
1.4 Operation	2
2. OVERVIEW	5
2.1 Relation to Other Protocols	9
2.2 Model of Operation	5
2.3 Function Description	7
2.4 Gateways	9
3. SPECIFICATION	11
3.1 Internet Header Format	11
3.2 Discussion	23
3.3 Interfaces	31
APPENDIX A: Examples & Scenarios	34
APPENDIX B: Data Transmission Order	39
GLOSSARY	41
REFERENCES	45

[Page i]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol

[Page ii]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol

PREFACE

This document specifies the DoD Standard Internet Protocol. This document is based on six earlier editions of the ARPA Internet Protocol Specification, and the present text draws heavily from them. There have been many contributors to this work both in terms of concepts and in terms of text. This edition revises aspects of addressing, error handling, option codes, and the security, precedence, compartments, and handling restriction features of the internet protocol.

Jon Postel

Editor

[Page iii]

□
□

September 1981

RFC: 791
Replaces: RFC 760
IENs 128, 123, 111,
80, 54, 44, 41, 28, 26

INTERNET PROTOCOL

DARPA INTERNET PROGRAM PROTOCOL SPECIFICATION

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Motivation

The Internet Protocol is designed for use in interconnected systems of packet-switched computer communication networks. Such a system has been called a "catenet" [1]. The internet protocol provides for transmitting blocks of data called datagrams from sources to destinations, where sources and destinations are hosts identified by fixed length addresses. The internet protocol also provides for fragmentation and reassembly of long datagrams, if necessary, for transmission through "small packet" networks.

1.2. Scope

The internet protocol is specifically limited in scope to provide the functions necessary to deliver a package of bits (an internet datagram) from a source to a destination over an interconnected system of networks. There are no mechanisms to augment end-to-end data reliability, flow control, sequencing, or other services commonly

found in host-to-host protocols. The internet protocol can capitalize on the services of its supporting networks to provide various types and qualities of service.

1.3. Interfaces

This protocol is called on by host-to-host protocols in an internet environment. This protocol calls on local network protocols to carry the internet datagram to the next gateway or destination host.

For example, a TCP module would call on the internet module to take a TCP segment (including the TCP header and user data) as the data portion of an internet datagram. The TCP module would provide the addresses and other parameters in the internet header to the internet module as arguments of the call. The internet module would then create an internet datagram and call on the local network interface to transmit the internet datagram.

In the ARPANET case, for example, the internet module would call on a

[Page 1]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol
Introduction

local net module which would add the 1822 leader [2] to the internet datagram creating an ARPANET message to transmit to the IMP. The ARPANET address would be derived from the internet address by the local network interface and would be the address of some host in the ARPANET, that host might be a gateway to other networks.

1.4. Operation

The internet protocol implements two basic functions: addressing and fragmentation.

The internet modules use the addresses carried in the internet header to transmit internet datagrams toward their destinations. The selection of a path for transmission is called routing.

The internet modules use fields in the internet header to fragment and reassemble internet datagrams when necessary for transmission through "small packet" networks.

The model of operation is that an internet module resides in each host engaged in internet communication and in each gateway that interconnects networks. These modules share common rules for interpreting address fields and for fragmenting and assembling internet datagrams. In addition, these modules (especially in gateways) have procedures for making routing decisions and other functions.

The internet protocol treats each internet datagram as an independent entity unrelated to any other internet datagram. There are no connections or logical circuits (virtual or otherwise).

The internet protocol uses four key mechanisms in providing its service: Type of Service, Time to Live, Options, and Header Checksum.

The Type of Service is used to indicate the quality of the service desired. The type of service is an abstract or generalized set of parameters which characterize the service choices provided in the

networks that make up the internet. This type of service indication is to be used by gateways to select the actual transmission parameters for a particular network, the network to be used for the next hop, or the next gateway when routing an internet datagram.

The Time to Live is an indication of an upper bound on the lifetime of an internet datagram. It is set by the sender of the datagram and reduced at the points along the route where it is processed. If the time to live reaches zero before the internet datagram reaches its destination, the internet datagram is destroyed. The time to live can be thought of as a self destruct time limit.

[Page 2]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol
Introduction

The Options provide for control functions needed or useful in some situations but unnecessary for the most common communications. The options include provisions for timestamps, security, and special routing.

The Header Checksum provides a verification that the information used in processing internet datagram has been transmitted correctly. The data may contain errors. If the header checksum fails, the internet datagram is discarded at once by the entity which detects the error.

The internet protocol does not provide a reliable communication facility. There are no acknowledgments either end-to-end or hop-by-hop. There is no error control for data, only a header checksum. There are no retransmissions. There is no flow control.

Errors detected may be reported via the Internet Control Message Protocol (ICMP) [3] which is implemented in the internet protocol module.

[Page 3]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol

[Page 4]

□

2. OVERVIEW

2.1. Relation to Other Protocols

The following diagram illustrates the place of the internet protocol in the protocol hierarchy:

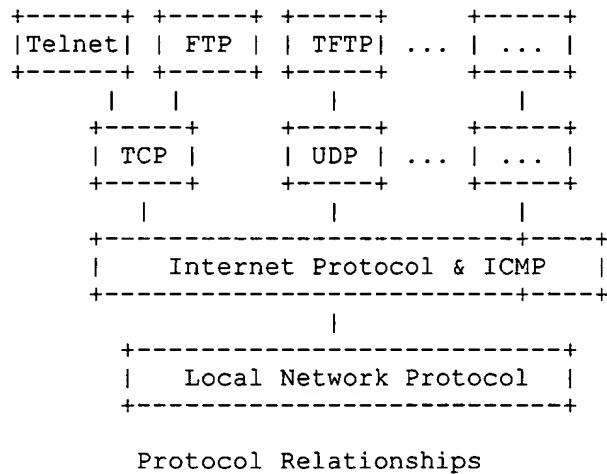


Figure 1.

Internet protocol interfaces on one side to the higher level host-to-host protocols and on the other side to the local network protocol. In this context a "local network" may be a small network in a building or a large network such as the ARPANET.

2.2. Model of Operation

The model of operation for transmitting a datagram from one application program to another is illustrated by the following scenario:

We suppose that this transmission will involve one intermediate gateway.

The sending application program prepares its data and calls on its local internet module to send that data as a datagram and passes the destination address and other parameters as arguments of the call.

The internet module prepares a datagram header and attaches the data to it. The internet module determines a local network address for this internet address, in this case it is the address of a gateway.

[Page 5]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol
Overview

It sends this datagram and the local network address to the local network interface.

The local network interface creates a local network header, and attaches the datagram to it, then sends the result via the local network.

The datagram arrives at a gateway host wrapped in the local network header, the local network interface strips off this header, and turns the datagram over to the internet module. The internet module determines from the internet address that the datagram is to be forwarded to another host in a second network. The internet module determines a local net address for the destination host. It calls on the local network interface for that network to send the datagram.

This local network interface creates a local network header and attaches the datagram sending the result to the destination host.

At this destination host the datagram is stripped of the local net header by the local network interface and handed to the internet module.

The internet module determines that the datagram is for an application program in this host. It passes the data to the application program in response to a system call, passing the source address and other parameters as results of the call.

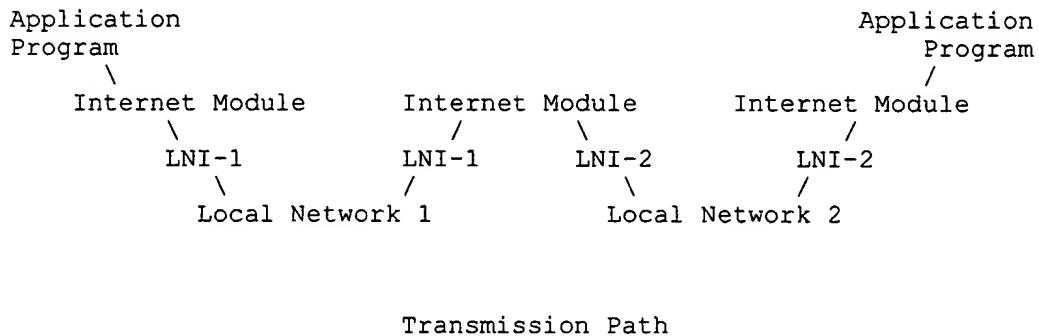


Figure 2

[Page 6]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol
Overview

2.3. Function Description

The function or purpose of Internet Protocol is to move datagrams through an interconnected set of networks. This is done by passing the datagrams from one internet module to another until the destination is reached. The internet modules reside in hosts and gateways in the internet system. The datagrams are routed from one internet module to another through individual networks based on the interpretation of an internet address. Thus, one important mechanism of the internet protocol is the internet address.

In the routing of messages from one internet module to another, datagrams may need to traverse a network whose maximum packet size is smaller than the size of the datagram. To overcome this difficulty, a fragmentation mechanism is provided in the internet protocol.

Addressing

A distinction is made between names, addresses, and routes [4]. A name indicates what we seek. An address indicates where it is. A route indicates how to get there. The internet protocol deals primarily with addresses. It is the task of higher level (i.e., host-to-host or application) protocols to make the mapping from names to addresses. The internet module maps internet addresses to local net addresses. It is the task of lower level (i.e., local net or gateways) procedures to make the mapping from local net addresses to routes.

Addresses are fixed length of four octets (32 bits). An address begins with a network number, followed by local address (called the "rest" field). There are three formats or classes of internet addresses: in class a, the high order bit is zero, the next 7 bits are the network, and the last 24 bits are the local address; in class b, the high order two bits are one-zero, the next 14 bits are the network and the last 16 bits are the local address; in class c, the high order three bits are one-one-zero, the next 21 bits are the network and the last 8 bits are the local address.

Care must be taken in mapping internet addresses to local net addresses; a single physical host must be able to act as if it were several distinct hosts to the extent of using several distinct internet addresses. Some hosts will also have several physical interfaces (multi-homing).

That is, provision must be made for a host to have several physical interfaces to the network with each having several logical internet addresses.

[Page 7]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol
Overview

Examples of address mappings may be found in "Address Mappings" [5].

Fragmentation

Fragmentation of an internet datagram is necessary when it originates in a local net that allows a large packet size and must traverse a local net that limits packets to a smaller size to reach its destination.

An internet datagram can be marked "don't fragment." Any internet datagram so marked is not to be internet fragmented under any circumstances. If internet datagram marked don't fragment cannot be delivered to its destination without fragmenting it, it is to be discarded instead.

Fragmentation, transmission and reassembly across a local network which is invisible to the internet protocol module is called intranet fragmentation and may be used [6].

The internet fragmentation and reassembly procedure needs to be able to break a datagram into an almost arbitrary number of pieces that can be later reassembled. The receiver of the fragments uses the identification field to ensure that fragments of different datagrams are not mixed. The fragment offset field tells the receiver the position of a fragment in the original datagram. The fragment offset and length determine the portion of the original datagram covered by this fragment. The more-fragments flag indicates (by being reset) the last fragment. These fields provide sufficient information to reassemble datagrams.

The identification field is used to distinguish the fragments of one datagram from those of another. The originating protocol module of an internet datagram sets the identification field to a value that must be unique for that source-destination pair and protocol for the time the datagram will be active in the internet system. The originating protocol module of a complete datagram sets the more-fragments flag to zero and the fragment offset to zero.

To fragment a long internet datagram, an internet protocol module (for example, in a gateway), creates two new internet datagrams and copies the contents of the internet header fields from the long datagram into both new internet headers. The data of the long datagram is divided into two portions on a 8 octet (64 bit) boundary (the second portion might not be an integral multiple of 8 octets, but the first must be). Call the number of 8 octet blocks in the first portion NFB (for Number of Fragment Blocks). The first portion of the data is placed in the first new internet datagram, and the total length field is set to the length of the first

[Page 8]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol
Overview

datagram. The more-fragments flag is set to one. The second portion of the data is placed in the second new internet datagram, and the total length field is set to the length of the second datagram. The more-fragments flag carries the same value as the long datagram. The fragment offset field of the second new internet datagram is set to the value of that field in the long datagram plus NFB.

This procedure can be generalized for an n-way split, rather than the two-way split described.

To assemble the fragments of an internet datagram, an internet protocol module (for example at a destination host) combines internet datagrams that all have the same value for the four fields: identification, source, destination, and protocol. The combination is done by placing the data portion of each fragment in the relative position indicated by the fragment offset in that fragment's internet header. The first fragment will have the fragment offset zero, and the last fragment will have the more-fragments flag reset to zero.

2.4. Gateways

Gateways implement internet protocol to forward datagrams between networks. Gateways also implement the Gateway to Gateway Protocol (GGP) [7] to coordinate routing and other internet control

information.

In a gateway the higher level protocols need not be implemented and the GGP functions are added to the IP module.

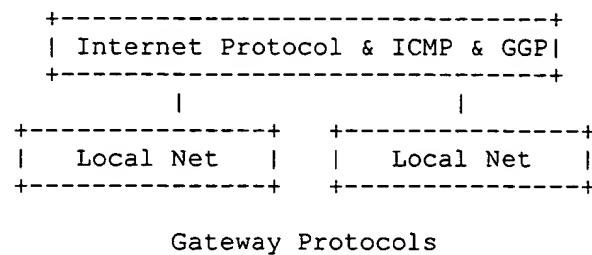


Figure 3.

[Page 9]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol

[Page 10]

1

September 1981

Internet Protocol

3. SPECIFICATION

3.1. Internet Header Format

A summary of the contents of the internet header follows:

Example Internet Datagram Header

Figure 4.

Note that each tick mark represents one bit position.

Version: 4 bits

The Version field indicates the format of the internet header. This document describes version 4.

IHL: 4 bits

Internet Header Length is the length of the internet header in 32 bit words, and thus points to the beginning of the data. Note that the minimum value for a correct header is 5.

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol
Specification

Type of Service: 8 bits

The Type of Service provides an indication of the abstract parameters of the quality of service desired. These parameters are to be used to guide the selection of the actual service parameters when transmitting a datagram through a particular network. Several networks offer service precedence, which somehow treats high precedence traffic as more important than other traffic (generally by accepting only traffic above a certain precedence at time of high load). The major choice is a three way tradeoff between low-delay, high-reliability, and high-throughput.

Bits 0-2: Precedence.

Bit 3: 0 = Normal Delay, 1 = Low Delay.

Bits 4: 0 = Normal Throughput, 1 = High Throughput.

Bits 5: 0 = Normal Reliability, 1 = High Reliability.

Bit 6-7: Reserved for Future Use.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
PRECEDENCE	D	T	R	0	0		
+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Precedence

- 111 - Network Control
- 110 - Internetwork Control
- 101 - CRITIC/ECP
- 100 - Flash Override
- 011 - Flash
- 010 - Immediate
- 001 - Priority
- 000 - Routine

The use of the Delay, Throughput, and Reliability indications may increase the cost (in some sense) of the service. In many networks better performance for one of these parameters is coupled with worse performance on another. Except for very unusual cases at most two of these three indications should be set.

The type of service is used to specify the treatment of the datagram during its transmission through the internet system. Example mappings of the internet type of service to the actual service provided on networks such as AUTODIN II, ARPANET, SATNET, and PRNET is given in "Service Mappings" [8].

September 1981

Internet Protocol
Specification

The Network Control precedence designation is intended to be used within a network only. The actual use and control of that designation is up to each network. The Internetwork Control designation is intended for use by gateway control originators only. If the actual use of these precedence designations is of concern to a particular network, it is the responsibility of that network to control the access to, and use of, those precedence designations.

Total Length: 16 bits

Total Length is the length of the datagram, measured in octets, including internet header and data. This field allows the length of a datagram to be up to 65,535 octets. Such long datagrams are impractical for most hosts and networks. All hosts must be prepared to accept datagrams of up to 576 octets (whether they arrive whole or in fragments). It is recommended that hosts only send datagrams larger than 576 octets if they have assurance that the destination is prepared to accept the larger datagrams.

The number 576 is selected to allow a reasonable sized data block to be transmitted in addition to the required header information. For example, this size allows a data block of 512 octets plus 64 header octets to fit in a datagram. The maximal internet header is 60 octets, and a typical internet header is 20 octets, allowing a margin for headers of higher level protocols.

Identification: 16 bits

An identifying value assigned by the sender to aid in assembling the fragments of a datagram.

Flags: 3 bits

Various Control Flags.

Bit 0: reserved, must be zero
 Bit 1: (DF) 0 = May Fragment, 1 = Don't Fragment.
 Bit 2: (MF) 0 = Last Fragment, 1 = More Fragments.

0	1	2
+	---	---
	D M	
0 F F		
+	---	---

Fragment Offset: 13 bits

This field indicates where in the datagram this fragment belongs.

September 1981

The fragment offset is measured in units of 8 octets (64 bits). The first fragment has offset zero.

Time to Live: 8 bits

This field indicates the maximum time the datagram is allowed to remain in the internet system. If this field contains the value zero, then the datagram must be destroyed. This field is modified in internet header processing. The time is measured in units of seconds, but since every module that processes a datagram must decrease the TTL by at least one even if it processes the datagram in less than a second, the TTL must be thought of only as an upper bound on the time a datagram may exist. The intention is to cause undeliverable datagrams to be discarded, and to bound the maximum datagram lifetime.

Protocol: 8 bits

This field indicates the next level protocol used in the data portion of the internet datagram. The values for various protocols are specified in "Assigned Numbers" [9].

Header Checksum: 16 bits

A checksum on the header only. Since some header fields change (e.g., time to live), this is recomputed and verified at each point that the internet header is processed.

The checksum algorithm is:

The checksum field is the 16 bit one's complement of the one's complement sum of all 16 bit words in the header. For purposes of computing the checksum, the value of the checksum field is zero.

This is a simple to compute checksum and experimental evidence indicates it is adequate, but it is provisional and may be replaced by a CRC procedure, depending on further experience.

Source Address: 32 bits

The source address. See section 3.2.

Destination Address: 32 bits

The destination address. See section 3.2.

[Page 14]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol
Specification

Options: variable

The options may appear or not in datagrams. They must be implemented by all IP modules (host and gateways). What is optional is their transmission in any particular datagram, not their implementation.

In some environments the security option may be required in all datagrams.

The option field is variable in length. There may be zero or more options. There are two cases for the format of an option:

Case 1: A single octet of option-type.

Case 2: An option-type octet, an option-length octet, and the actual option-data octets.

The option-length octet counts the option-type octet and the option-length octet as well as the option-data octets.

The option-type octet is viewed as having 3 fields:

1 bit copied flag,
2 bits option class,
5 bits option number.

The copied flag indicates that this option is copied into all fragments on fragmentation.

0 = not copied
1 = copied

The option classes are:

0 = control
1 = reserved for future use
2 = debugging and measurement
3 = reserved for future use

[Page 15]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol
Specification

The following internet options are defined:

CLASS	NUMBER	LENGTH	DESCRIPTION
0	0	-	End of Option list. This option occupies only 1 octet; it has no length octet.
0	1	-	No Operation. This option occupies only 1 octet; it has no length octet.
0	2	11	Security. Used to carry Security, Compartmentation, User Group (TCC), and Handling Restriction Codes compatible with DOD requirements.
0	3	var.	Loose Source Routing. Used to route the internet datagram based on information supplied by the source.

0	9	var.	Strict Source Routing. Used to route the internet datagram based on information supplied by the source.
0	7	var.	Record Route. Used to trace the route an internet datagram takes.
0	8	4	Stream ID. Used to carry the stream identifier.
2	4	var.	Internet Timestamp.

Specific Option Definitions

End of Option List

00000000

Type=0

This option indicates the end of the option list. This might not coincide with the end of the internet header according to the internet header length. This is used at the end of all options, not the end of each option, and need only be used if the end of the options would not otherwise coincide with the end of the internet header.

May be copied, introduced, or deleted on fragmentation, or for any other reason.

[Page 16]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol Specification

No Operation

100000001

Type=1

This option may be used between options, for example, to align the beginning of a subsequent option on a 32 bit boundary.

May be copied, introduced, or deleted on fragmentation, or for any other reason.

Security

This option provides a way for hosts to send security, compartmentation, handling restrictions, and TCC (closed user group) parameters. The format for this option is as follows:

```
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+  
|100000010|00001011|SSS    SSS|CCC    CCC|HHH    HHH|    TCC    |  
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
```

Security (S field): 16 bits

Specifies one of 16 levels of security (eight of which are reserved for future use).

00000000	00000000	- Unclassified
11110001	00110101	- Confidential
01111000	10011010	- EFTO
10111100	01001101	- MMMM
01011110	00100110	- PROG
10101111	00010011	- Restricted
11010111	10001000	- Secret
01101011	11000101	- Top Secret
00110101	11100010	- (Reserved for future use)
10011010	11110001	- (Reserved for future use)
01001101	01111000	- (Reserved for future use)
00100100	10111101	- (Reserved for future use)
00010011	01011110	- (Reserved for future use)
10001001	10101111	- (Reserved for future use)
11000100	11010110	- (Reserved for future use)
11100010	01101011	- (Reserved for future use)

[Page 17]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol Specification

Compartments (C field): 16 bits

An all zero value is used when the information transmitted is not compartmented. Other values for the compartments field may be obtained from the Defense Intelligence Agency.

Handling Restrictions (H field): 16 bits

The values for the control and release markings are alphanumeric digraphs and are defined in the Defense Intelligence Agency Manual DIAM 65-19, "Standard Security Markings".

Transmission Control Code (TCC field): 24 bits

Provides a means to segregate traffic and define controlled communities of interest among subscribers. The TCC values are trigraphs, and are available from HQ DCA Code 530.

Must be copied on fragmentation. This option appears at most once in a datagram.

Loose Source and Record Route

10000011	length	pointer	route	data	
Type=131					

The loose source and record route (LSRR) option provides a means for the source of an internet datagram to supply routing

information to be used by the gateways in forwarding the datagram to the destination, and to record the route information.

The option begins with the option type code. The second octet is the option length which includes the option type code and the length octet, the pointer octet, and length-3 octets of route data. The third octet is the pointer into the route data indicating the octet which begins the next source address to be processed. The pointer is relative to this option, and the smallest legal value for the pointer is 4.

A route data is composed of a series of internet addresses. Each internet address is 32 bits or 4 octets. If the pointer is greater than the length, the source route is empty (and the recorded route full) and the routing is to be based on the destination address field.

[Page 18]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol
Specification

If the address in destination address field has been reached and the pointer is not greater than the length, the next address in the source route replaces the address in the destination address field, and the recorded route address replaces the source address just used, and pointer is increased by four.

The recorded route address is the internet module's own internet address as known in the environment into which this datagram is being forwarded.

This procedure of replacing the source route with the recorded route (though it is in the reverse of the order it must be in to be used as a source route) means the option (and the IP header as a whole) remains a constant length as the datagram progresses through the internet.

This option is a loose source route because the gateway or host IP is allowed to use any route of any number of other intermediate gateways to reach the next address in the route.

Must be copied on fragmentation. Appears at most once in a datagram.

Strict Source and Record Route

+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+	
10001001 length pointer route data	
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+	

Type=137

The strict source and record route (SSRR) option provides a means for the source of an internet datagram to supply routing information to be used by the gateways in forwarding the datagram to the destination, and to record the route information.

The option begins with the option type code. The second octet is the option length which includes the option type code and the length octet, the pointer octet, and length-3 octets of route

data. The third octet is the pointer into the route data indicating the octet which begins the next source address to be processed. The pointer is relative to this option, and the smallest legal value for the pointer is 4.

A route data is composed of a series of internet addresses. Each internet address is 32 bits or 4 octets. If the pointer is greater than the length, the source route is empty (and the

[Page 19]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol
Specification

recorded route full) and the routing is to be based on the destination address field.

If the address in destination address field has been reached and the pointer is not greater than the length, the next address in the source route replaces the address in the destination address field, and the recorded route address replaces the source address just used, and pointer is increased by four.

The recorded route address is the internet module's own internet address as known in the environment into which this datagram is being forwarded.

This procedure of replacing the source route with the recorded route (though it is in the reverse of the order it must be in to be used as a source route) means the option (and the IP header as a whole) remains a constant length as the datagram progresses through the internet.

This option is a strict source route because the gateway or host IP must send the datagram directly to the next address in the source route through only the directly connected network indicated in the next address to reach the next gateway or host specified in the route.

Must be copied on fragmentation. Appears at most once in a datagram.

Record Route

000000111	length	pointer	route data
-----------	--------	---------	------------

Type=7

The record route option provides a means to record the route of an internet datagram.

The option begins with the option type code. The second octet is the option length which includes the option type code and the length octet, the pointer octet, and length-3 octets of route data. The third octet is the pointer into the route data indicating the octet which begins the next area to store a route address. The pointer is relative to this option, and the smallest legal value for the pointer is 4.

A recorded route is composed of a series of internet addresses.

Each internet address is 32 bits or 4 octets. If the pointer is

[Page 20]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol
Specification

greater than the length, the recorded route data area is full. The originating host must compose this option with a large enough route data area to hold all the address expected. The size of the option does not change due to adding addresses. The initial contents of the route data area must be zero.

When an internet module routes a datagram it checks to see if the record route option is present. If it is, it inserts its own internet address as known in the environment into which this datagram is being forwarded into the recorded route beginning at the octet indicated by the pointer, and increments the pointer by four.

If the route data area is already full (the pointer exceeds the length) the datagram is forwarded without inserting the address into the recorded route. If there is some room but not enough room for a full address to be inserted, the original datagram is considered to be in error and is discarded. In either case an ICMP parameter problem message may be sent to the source host [3].

Not copied on fragmentation, goes in first fragment only.
Appears at most once in a datagram.

Stream Identifier

+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
	1	0	0	0	1	0	
+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+

Stream ID

Type=136 Length=4

This option provides a way for the 16-bit SATNET stream identifier to be carried through networks that do not support the stream concept.

Must be copied on fragmentation. Appears at most once in a datagram.

[Page 21]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol

Internet Timestamp

01000100	length	pointer	oflw	flg
internet address				
timestamp				
.				
.				
.				

Type = 68

The Option Length is the number of octets in the option counting the type, length, pointer, and overflow/flag octets (maximum length 40).

The Pointer is the number of octets from the beginning of this option to the end of timestamps plus one (i.e., it points to the octet beginning the space for next timestamp). The smallest legal value is 5. The timestamp area is full when the pointer is greater than the length.

The Overflow (oflw) [4 bits] is the number of IP modules that cannot register timestamps due to lack of space.

The Flag (flg) [4 bits] values are

- 0 -- time stamps only, stored in consecutive 32-bit words,
- 1 -- each timestamp is preceded with internet address of the registering entity,
- 3 -- the internet address fields are prespecified. An IP module only registers its timestamp if it matches its own address with the next specified internet address.

The Timestamp is a right-justified, 32-bit timestamp in milliseconds since midnight UT. If the time is not available in milliseconds or cannot be provided with respect to midnight UT then any time may be inserted as a timestamp provided the high order bit of the timestamp field is set to one to indicate the use of a non-standard value.

The originating host must compose this option with a large enough timestamp data area to hold all the timestamp information expected. The size of the option does not change due to adding

[Page 22]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol
Specification

timestamps. The initial contents of the timestamp data area must be zero or internet address/zero pairs.

If the timestamp data area is already full (the pointer exceeds

the length) the datagram is forwarded without inserting the timestamp, but the overflow count is incremented by one.

If there is some room but not enough room for a full timestamp to be inserted, or the overflow count itself overflows, the original datagram is considered to be in error and is discarded. In either case an ICMP parameter problem message may be sent to the source host [3].

The timestamp option is not copied upon fragmentation. It is carried in the first fragment. Appears at most once in a datagram.

Padding: variable

The internet header padding is used to ensure that the internet header ends on a 32 bit boundary. The padding is zero.

3.2. Discussion

The implementation of a protocol must be robust. Each implementation must expect to interoperate with others created by different individuals. While the goal of this specification is to be explicit about the protocol there is the possibility of differing interpretations. In general, an implementation must be conservative in its sending behavior, and liberal in its receiving behavior. That is, it must be careful to send well-formed datagrams, but must accept any datagram that it can interpret (e.g., not object to technical errors where the meaning is still clear).

The basic internet service is datagram oriented and provides for the fragmentation of datagrams at gateways, with reassembly taking place at the destination internet protocol module in the destination host. Of course, fragmentation and reassembly of datagrams within a network or by private agreement between the gateways of a network is also allowed since this is transparent to the internet protocols and the higher-level protocols. This transparent type of fragmentation and reassembly is termed "network-dependent" (or intranet) fragmentation and is not discussed further here.

Internet addresses distinguish sources and destinations to the host level and provide a protocol field as well. It is assumed that each protocol will provide for whatever multiplexing is necessary within a host.

[Page 23]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol
Specification

Addressing

To provide for flexibility in assigning address to networks and allow for the large number of small to intermediate sized networks the interpretation of the address field is coded to specify a small number of networks with a large number of hosts, a moderate number of networks with a moderate number of hosts, and a large number of networks with a small number of hosts. In addition there is an escape code for extended addressing mode.

Address Formats:

High Order Bits	Format	Class
0	7 bits of net, 24 bits of host	a
10	14 bits of net, 16 bits of host	b
110	21 bits of net, 8 bits of host	c
111	escape to extended addressing mode	

A value of zero in the network field means this network. This is only used in certain ICMP messages. The extended addressing mode is undefined. Both of these features are reserved for future use.

The actual values assigned for network addresses is given in "Assigned Numbers" [9].

The local address, assigned by the local network, must allow for a single physical host to act as several distinct internet hosts. That is, there must be a mapping between internet host addresses and network/host interfaces that allows several internet addresses to correspond to one interface. It must also be allowed for a host to have several physical interfaces and to treat the datagrams from several of them as if they were all addressed to a single host.

Address mappings between internet addresses and addresses for ARPANET, SATNET, PRNET, and other networks are described in "Address Mappings" [5].

Fragmentation and Reassembly.

The internet identification field (ID) is used together with the source and destination address, and the protocol fields, to identify datagram fragments for reassembly.

The More Fragments flag bit (MF) is set if the datagram is not the last fragment. The Fragment Offset field identifies the fragment location, relative to the beginning of the original unfragmented datagram. Fragments are counted in units of 8 octets. The

[Page 24]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol
Specification

fragmentation strategy is designed so than an unfragmented datagram has all zero fragmentation information (MF = 0, fragment offset = 0). If an internet datagram is fragmented, its data portion must be broken on 8 octet boundaries.

This format allows $2^{13} = 8192$ fragments of 8 octets each for a total of 65,536 octets. Note that this is consistent with the the datagram total length field (of course, the header is counted in the total length and not in the fragments).

When fragmentation occurs, some options are copied, but others remain with the first fragment only.

Every internet module must be able to forward a datagram of 68 octets without further fragmentation. This is because an internet header may be up to 60 octets, and the minimum fragment is 8 octets.

Every internet destination must be able to receive a datagram of 576 octets either in one piece or in fragments to be reassembled.

The fields which may be affected by fragmentation include:

- (1) options field
- (2) more fragments flag
- (3) fragment offset
- (4) internet header length field
- (5) total length field
- (6) header checksum

If the Don't Fragment flag (DF) bit is set, then internet fragmentation of this datagram is NOT permitted, although it may be discarded. This can be used to prohibit fragmentation in cases where the receiving host does not have sufficient resources to reassemble internet fragments.

One example of use of the Don't Fragment feature is to down line load a small host. A small host could have a boot strap program that accepts a datagram stores it in memory and then executes it.

The fragmentation and reassembly procedures are most easily described by examples. The following procedures are example implementations.

General notation in the following pseudo programs: " $=<$ " means "less than or equal", " $\#$ " means "not equal", " $=$ " means "equal", " $<-$ " means "is set to". Also, " x to y " includes x and excludes y ; for example, "4 to 7" would include 4, 5, and 6 (but not 7).

[Page 25]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol
Specification

An Example Fragmentation Procedure

The maximum sized datagram that can be transmitted through the next network is called the maximum transmission unit (MTU).

If the total length is less than or equal the maximum transmission unit then submit this datagram to the next step in datagram processing; otherwise cut the datagram into two fragments, the first fragment being the maximum size, and the second fragment being the rest of the datagram. The first fragment is submitted to the next step in datagram processing, while the second fragment is submitted to this procedure in case it is still too large.

Notation:

FO	- Fragment Offset
IHL	- Internet Header Length
DF	- Don't Fragment flag
MF	- More Fragments flag
TL	- Total Length
OFO	- Old Fragment Offset
OIHL	- Old Internet Header Length
OMF	- Old More Fragments flag
OTL	- Old Total Length
NFB	- Number of Fragment Blocks
MTU	- Maximum Transmission Unit

Procedure:

```

IF TL =< MTU THEN Submit this datagram to the next step
    in datagram processing ELSE IF DF = 1 THEN discard the
datagram ELSE
To produce the first fragment:
(1) Copy the original internet header;
(2) OIHL <- IHL; OTL <- TL; OFO <- FO; OMF <- MF;
(3) NFB <- (MTU-IHL*4)/8;
(4) Attach the first NFB*8 data octets;
(5) Correct the header:
    MF <- 1; TL <- (IHL*4)+(NFB*8);
    Recompute Checksum;
(6) Submit this fragment to the next step in
datagram processing;
To produce the second fragment:
(7) Selectively copy the internet header (some options
are not copied, see option definitions);
(8) Append the remaining data;
(9) Correct the header:
    IHL <- (((OIHL*4)-(length of options not copied))+3)/4;

```

[Page 26]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol
Specification

```

TL <- OTL - NFB*8 - (OIHL-IHL)*4;
FO <- OFO + NFB; MF <- OMF; Recompute Checksum;
(10) Submit this fragment to the fragmentation test; DONE.

```

In the above procedure each fragment (except the last) was made the maximum allowable size. An alternative might produce less than the maximum size datagrams. For example, one could implement a fragmentation procedure that repeatedly divided large datagrams in half until the resulting fragments were less than the maximum transmission unit size.

An Example Reassembly Procedure

For each datagram the buffer identifier is computed as the concatenation of the source, destination, protocol, and identification fields. If this is a whole datagram (that is both the fragment offset and the more fragments fields are zero), then any reassembly resources associated with this buffer identifier are released and the datagram is forwarded to the next step in datagram processing.

If no other fragment with this buffer identifier is on hand then reassembly resources are allocated. The reassembly resources consist of a data buffer, a header buffer, a fragment block bit table, a total data length field, and a timer. The data from the fragment is placed in the data buffer according to its fragment offset and length, and bits are set in the fragment block bit table corresponding to the fragment blocks received.

If this is the first fragment (that is the fragment offset is zero) this header is placed in the header buffer. If this is the last fragment (that is the more fragments field is zero) the total data length is computed. If this fragment completes the datagram (tested by checking the bits set in the fragment block table), then the datagram is sent to the next step in datagram processing; otherwise the timer is set to the maximum of the

current timer value and the value of the time to live field from this fragment; and the reassembly routine gives up control.

If the timer runs out, the all reassembly resources for this buffer identifier are released. The initial setting of the timer is a lower bound on the reassembly waiting time. This is because the waiting time will be increased if the Time to Live in the arriving fragment is greater than the current timer value but will not be decreased if it is less. The maximum this timer value could reach is the maximum time to live (approximately 4.25 minutes). The current recommendation for the initial timer setting is 15 seconds. This may be changed as experience with

[Page 27]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol
Specification

this protocol accumulates. Note that the choice of this parameter value is related to the buffer capacity available and the data rate of the transmission medium; that is, data rate times timer value equals buffer size (e.g., 10Kb/s X 15s = 150Kb).

Notation:

FO	-	Fragment Offset
IHL	-	Internet Header Length
MF	-	More Fragments flag
TTL	-	Time To Live
NFB	-	Number of Fragment Blocks
TL	-	Total Length
TDL	-	Total Data Length
BUFID	-	Buffer Identifier
RCVBT	-	Fragment Received Bit Table
TLB	-	Timer Lower Bound

Procedure:

```
(1)  BUFID <- source|destination|protocol|identification;
(2)  IF FO = 0 AND MF = 0
(3)    THEN IF buffer with BUFID is allocated
(4)      THEN flush all reassembly for this BUFID;
(5)      Submit datagram to next step; DONE.
(6)    ELSE IF no buffer with BUFID is allocated
(7)      THEN allocate reassembly resources
           with BUFID;
           TIMER <- TLB; TDL <- 0;
(8)    put data from fragment into data buffer with
           BUFID from octet FO*8 to
           octet (TL-(IHL*4))+FO*8;
(9)    set RCVBT bits from FO
           to FO+((TL-(IHL*4)+7)/8);
(10)   IF MF = 0 THEN TDL <- TL-(IHL*4)+(FO*8)
(11)   IF FO = 0 THEN put header in header buffer
(12)   IF TDL # 0
(13)     AND all RCVBT bits from 0
           to (TDL+7)/8 are set
(14)     THEN TL <- TDL+(IHL*4)
(15)     Submit datagram to next step;
(16)     free all reassembly resources
           for this BUFID; DONE.
(17)     TIMER <- MAX(TIMER,TTL);
```

- (18) give up until next fragment or timer expires;
- (19) timer expires: flush all reassembly with this BUFID; DONE.

In the case that two or more fragments contain the same data

[Page 28]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol
Specification

either identically or through a partial overlap, this procedure will use the more recently arrived copy in the data buffer and datagram delivered.

Identification

The choice of the Identifier for a datagram is based on the need to provide a way to uniquely identify the fragments of a particular datagram. The protocol module assembling fragments judges fragments to belong to the same datagram if they have the same source, destination, protocol, and Identifier. Thus, the sender must choose the Identifier to be unique for this source, destination pair and protocol for the time the datagram (or any fragment of it) could be alive in the internet.

It seems then that a sending protocol module needs to keep a table of Identifiers, one entry for each destination it has communicated with in the last maximum packet lifetime for the internet.

However, since the Identifier field allows 65,536 different values, some host may be able to simply use unique identifiers independent of destination.

It is appropriate for some higher level protocols to choose the identifier. For example, TCP protocol modules may retransmit an identical TCP segment, and the probability for correct reception would be enhanced if the retransmission carried the same identifier as the original transmission since fragments of either datagram could be used to construct a correct TCP segment.

Type of Service

The type of service (TOS) is for internet service quality selection. The type of service is specified along the abstract parameters precedence, delay, throughput, and reliability. These abstract parameters are to be mapped into the actual service parameters of the particular networks the datagram traverses.

Precedence. An independent measure of the importance of this datagram.

Delay. Prompt delivery is important for datagrams with this indication.

Throughput. High data rate is important for datagrams with this indication.

[Page 29]

□

Reliability. A higher level of effort to ensure delivery is important for datagrams with this indication.

For example, the ARPANET has a priority bit, and a choice between "standard" messages (type 0) and "uncontrolled" messages (type 3), (the choice between single packet and multipacket messages can also be considered a service parameter). The uncontrolled messages tend to be less reliably delivered and suffer less delay. Suppose an internet datagram is to be sent through the ARPANET. Let the internet type of service be given as:

Precedence:	5
Delay:	0
Throughput:	1
Reliability:	1

In this example, the mapping of these parameters to those available for the ARPANET would be to set the ARPANET priority bit on since the Internet precedence is in the upper half of its range, to select standard messages since the throughput and reliability requirements are indicated and delay is not. More details are given on service mappings in "Service Mappings" [8].

Time to Live

The time to live is set by the sender to the maximum time the datagram is allowed to be in the internet system. If the datagram is in the internet system longer than the time to live, then the datagram must be destroyed.

This field must be decreased at each point that the internet header is processed to reflect the time spent processing the datagram. Even if no local information is available on the time actually spent, the field must be decremented by 1. The time is measured in units of seconds (i.e. the value 1 means one second). Thus, the maximum time to live is 255 seconds or 4.25 minutes. Since every module that processes a datagram must decrease the TTL by at least one even if it processes the datagram in less than a second, the TTL must be thought of only as an upper bound on the time a datagram may exist. The intention is to cause undeliverable datagrams to be discarded, and to bound the maximum datagram lifetime.

Some higher level reliable connection protocols are based on assumptions that old duplicate datagrams will not arrive after a certain time elapses. The TTL is a way for such protocols to have an assurance that their assumption is met.

[Page 30]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol
Specification

Options

The options are optional in each datagram, but required in implementations. That is, the presence or absence of an option is the choice of the sender, but each internet module must be able to parse every option. There can be several options present in the option field.

The options might not end on a 32-bit boundary. The internet header must be filled out with octets of zeros. The first of these would be interpreted as the end-of-options option, and the remainder as internet header padding.

Every internet module must be able to act on every option. The Security Option is required if classified, restricted, or compartmented traffic is to be passed.

Checksum

The internet header checksum is recomputed if the internet header is changed. For example, a reduction of the time to live, additions or changes to internet options, or due to fragmentation. This checksum at the internet level is intended to protect the internet header fields from transmission errors.

There are some applications where a few data bit errors are acceptable while retransmission delays are not. If the internet protocol enforced data correctness such applications could not be supported.

Errors

Internet protocol errors may be reported via the ICMP messages [3].

3.3. Interfaces

The functional description of user interfaces to the IP is, at best, fictional, since every operating system will have different facilities. Consequently, we must warn readers that different IP implementations may have different user interfaces. However, all IPs must provide a certain minimum set of services to guarantee that all IP implementations can support the same protocol hierarchy. This section specifies the functional interfaces required of all IP implementations.

Internet protocol interfaces on one side to the local network and on the other side to either a higher level protocol or an application program. In the following, the higher level protocol or application

[Page 31]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol
Specification

program (or even a gateway program) will be called the "user" since it is using the internet module. Since internet protocol is a datagram protocol, there is minimal memory or state maintained between datagram transmissions, and each call on the internet protocol module by the user supplies all information necessary for the IP to perform the service requested.

An Example Upper Level Interface

The following two example calls satisfy the requirements for the user to internet protocol module communication ("=>" means returns):

SEND (src, dst, prot, TOS, TTL, BufPTR, len, Id, DF, opt => result)

where:

```
src = source address
dst = destination address
prot = protocol
TOS = type of service
TTL = time to live
BufPTR = buffer pointer
len = length of buffer
Id = Identifier
DF = Don't Fragment
opt = option data
result = response
    OK = datagram sent ok
    Error = error in arguments or local network error
```

Note that the precedence is included in the TOS and the security/compartment is passed as an option.

RECV (BufPTR, prot, => result, src, dst, TOS, len, opt)

where:

```
BufPTR = buffer pointer
prot = protocol
result = response
    OK = datagram received ok
    Error = error in arguments
len = length of buffer
src = source address
dst = destination address
TOS = type of service
opt = option data
```

[Page 32]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol
Specification

When the user sends a datagram, it executes the SEND call supplying all the arguments. The internet protocol module, on receiving this call, checks the arguments and prepares and sends the message. If the arguments are good and the datagram is accepted by the local network, the call returns successfully. If either the arguments are bad, or the datagram is not accepted by the local network, the call returns unsuccessfully. On unsuccessful returns, a reasonable report must be made as to the cause of the problem, but the details of such reports are up to individual implementations.

When a datagram arrives at the internet protocol module from the local network, either there is a pending RECV call from the user addressed or there is not. In the first case, the pending call is satisfied by passing the information from the datagram to the user. In the second case, the user addressed is notified of a pending datagram. If the user addressed does not exist, an ICMP error message is returned to the sender, and the data is discarded.

The notification of a user may be via a pseudo interrupt or similar mechanism, as appropriate in the particular operating system environment of the implementation.

A user's RECV call may then either be immediately satisfied by a pending datagram, or the call may be pending until a datagram arrives.

The source address is included in the send call in case the sending host has several addresses (multiple physical connections or logical addresses). The internet module must check to see that the source address is one of the legal address for this host.

An implementation may also allow or require a call to the internet module to indicate interest in or reserve exclusive use of a class of datagrams (e.g., all those with a certain value in the protocol field).

This section functionally characterizes a USER/IP interface. The notation used is similar to most procedure of function calls in high level languages, but this usage is not meant to rule out trap type service calls (e.g., SVCs, UUOs, EMTs), or any other form of interprocess communication.

[Page 33]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol

APPENDIX A: Examples & Scenarios

Example 1:

This is an example of the minimal data carrying internet datagram:

Example Internet Datagram

Figure 5.

Note that each tick mark represents one bit position.

This is a internet datagram in version 4 of internet protocol; the internet header consists of five 32 bit words, and the total length of the datagram is 21 octets. This datagram is a complete datagram (not a fragment).

[Page 34]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol

Example 2:

In this example, we show first a moderate size internet datagram (452 data octets), then two internet fragments that might result from the fragmentation of this datagram if the maximum sized transmission allowed were 280 octets.

```
0      1      2      3
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|Ver= 4 |IHL= 5 |Type of Service|      Total Length = 472      |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|      Identification = 111 |Flg=0|      Fragment Offset = 0 |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|      Time = 123 |Protocol = 6 |      header checksum      |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|                      source address                      |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|                      destination address                 |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|                      data                      |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|                      data                      |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|                      data                      |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|                      data                      |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
```

Example Internet Datagram

Figure 6.

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol

Now the first fragment that results from splitting the datagram after 256 data octets.

```
0      1      2      3
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|Ver= 4 |IHL= 5 |Type of Service|      Total Length = 276   |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|      Identification = 111  |Flg=1|      Fragment Offset = 0 |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|      Time = 119  |Protocol = 6 |      Header Checksum   |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|      source address   |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|      destination address   |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|      data   |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|      data   |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|      data   |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|      data   |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
```

Example Internet Fragment

Figure 7.

And the second fragment.

```
0           1           2           3
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|Ver= 4 |IHL= 5 |Type of Service|      Total Length = 216   |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|      Identification = 111      |Flg=0|  Fragment Offset = 32 |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|      Time = 119      |Protocol = 6 |      Header Checksum   |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|                      source address          |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|                      destination address      |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|                      data                  |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|                      data                  |
\  \
|                      data                  |
|          data          |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
```

Example Internet Fragment

Figure 8.

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol

Example 3:

Here, we show an example of a datagram containing options:

```

0      1      2      3
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|Ver= 4 |IHL= 8 |Type of Service|          Total Length = 576   |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|      Identification = 111    |Flg=0|      Fragment Offset = 0 |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|      Time = 123   |Protocol = 6 |      Header Checksum   |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|                      source address          |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|                      destination address      |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| Opt. Code = x | Opt. Len.= 3 | option value | Opt. Code = x |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| Opt. Len. = 4 |          option value          | Opt. Code = 1 |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| Opt. Code = y | Opt. Len. = 3 | option value | Opt. Code = 0 |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|          data          |
\          \
\          \
|          data          |
|          data          |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+

```

Example Internet Datagram

Figure 9.

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol

APPENDIX B: Data Transmission Order

The order of transmission of the header and data described in this document is resolved to the octet level. Whenever a diagram shows a group of octets, the order of transmission of those octets is the normal order in which they are read in English. For example, in the following diagram the octets are transmitted in the order they are numbered.

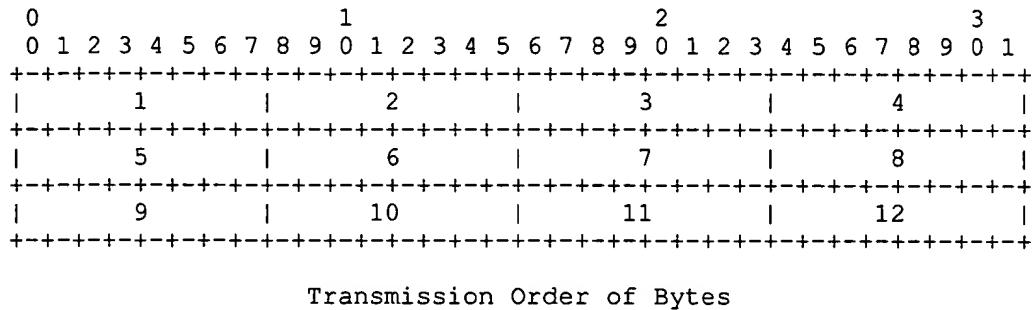


Figure 10.

Whenever an octet represents a numeric quantity the left most bit in the diagram is the high order or most significant bit. That is, the bit labeled 0 is the most significant bit. For example, the following diagram represents the value 170 (decimal).

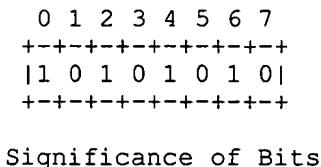


Figure 11.

Similarly, whenever a multi-octet field represents a numeric quantity the left most bit of the whole field is the most significant bit. When a multi-octet quantity is transmitted the most significant octet is transmitted first.

[Page 39]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol

[Page 40]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol

GLOSSARY

1822

BBN Report 1822, "The Specification of the Interconnection of a Host and an IMP". The specification of interface between a host and the ARPANET.

ARPANET leader

The control information on an ARPANET message at the host-IMP interface.

ARPANET message

The unit of transmission between a host and an IMP in the

ARPANET. The maximum size is about 1012 octets (8096 bits).

ARPANET packet

A unit of transmission used internally in the ARPANET between IMPs. The maximum size is about 126 octets (1008 bits).

Destination

The destination address, an internet header field.

DF

The Don't Fragment bit carried in the flags field.

Flags

An internet header field carrying various control flags.

Fragment Offset

This internet header field indicates where in the internet datagram a fragment belongs.

GGP

Gateway to Gateway Protocol, the protocol used primarily between gateways to control routing and other gateway functions.

header

Control information at the beginning of a message, segment, datagram, packet or block of data.

ICMP

Internet Control Message Protocol, implemented in the internet module, the ICMP is used from gateways to hosts and between hosts to report errors and make routing suggestions.

[Page 41]

□

September 1981

**Internet Protocol
Glossary**

Identification

An internet header field carrying the identifying value assigned by the sender to aid in assembling the fragments of a datagram.

IHL

The internet header field Internet Header Length is the length of the internet header measured in 32 bit words.

IMP

The Interface Message Processor, the packet switch of the ARPANET.

Internet Address

A four octet (32 bit) source or destination address consisting of a Network field and a Local Address field.

internet datagram

The unit of data exchanged between a pair of internet modules (includes the internet header).

internet fragment

A portion of the data of an internet datagram with an internet header.

Local Address

The address of a host within a network. The actual mapping of an internet local address on to the host addresses in a network is quite general, allowing for many to one mappings.

MF

The More-Fragments Flag carried in the internet header flags field.

module

An implementation, usually in software, of a protocol or other procedure.

more-fragments flag

A flag indicating whether or not this internet datagram contains the end of an internet datagram, carried in the internet header Flags field.

NFB

The Number of Fragment Blocks in the data portion of an internet fragment. That is, the length of a portion of data measured in 8 octet units.

[Page 42]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol
Glossary

octet

An eight bit byte.

Options

The internet header Options field may contain several options, and each option may be several octets in length.

Padding

The internet header Padding field is used to ensure that the data begins on 32 bit word boundary. The padding is zero.

Protocol

In this document, the next higher level protocol identifier, an internet header field.

Rest

The local address portion of an Internet Address.

Source

The source address, an internet header field.

TCP

Transmission Control Protocol: A host-to-host protocol for reliable communication in internet environments.

TCP Segment

The unit of data exchanged between TCP modules (including the TCP header).

TFTP

Trivial File Transfer Protocol: A simple file transfer protocol built on UDP.

Time to Live

An internet header field which indicates the upper bound on how long this internet datagram may exist.

TOS

Type of Service

Total Length

The internet header field Total Length is the length of the datagram in octets including internet header and data.

TTL

Time to Live

[Page 43]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol
Glossary

Type of Service

An internet header field which indicates the type (or quality) of service for this internet datagram.

UDP

User Datagram Protocol: A user level protocol for transaction oriented applications.

User

The user of the internet protocol. This may be a higher level protocol module, an application program, or a gateway program.

Version

The Version field indicates the format of the internet header.

[Page 44]

□

September 1981

Internet Protocol

REFERENCES

- [1] Cerf, V., "The Catenet Model for Internetworking," Information Processing Techniques Office, Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency, IEN 48, July 1978.
- [2] Bolt Beranek and Newman, "Specification for the Interconnection of a Host and an IMP," BBN Technical Report 1822, Revised May 1978.
- [3] Postel, J., "Internet Control Message Protocol - DARPA Internet Program Protocol Specification," RFC 792, USC/Information Sciences Institute, September 1981.
- [4] Shoch, J., "Inter-Network Naming, Addressing, and Routing," COMPCON, IEEE Computer Society, Fall 1978.
- [5] Postel, J., "Address Mappings," RFC 796, USC/Information Sciences Institute, September 1981.
- [6] Shoch, J., "Packet Fragmentation in Inter-Network Protocols," Computer Networks, v. 3, n. 1, February 1979.
- [7] Strazisar, V., "How to Build a Gateway", IEN 109, Bolt Beranek and Newman, August 1979.
- [8] Postel, J., "Service Mappings," RFC 795, USC/Information Sciences Institute, September 1981.
- [9] Postel, J., "Assigned Numbers," RFC 790, USC/Information Sciences Institute, September 1981.

□